
**PERSONNEL
ADMINISTRATION
IN EDUCATION**

EXPLORATION SERIES IN EDUCATION

...

Under the Advisory Editorship of

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Personnel Administration in Education

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EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

Basically, the strength and effectiveness of a local school system are determined by the adequacy and the quality of the necessary staff. However, the schools of a given community may have a sufficiently large staff of the highest competence and still not enjoy the kind of educational program that would well be expected.

Sound organization which as nearly as possible guarantees the assignment of individuals to posts in which they are interested and for which they are qualified; maximum opportunity for personal growth, development, and advancement; fair and equitable welfare policies with respect to salary, sick leave, health protection, and retirement provisions: all these loom large in the services rendered by school staffs. Also of high importance is the type of leadership exercised by administrative boards and officers. Such are some of the essential elements in the establishment of a working climate of a school system in which each and every individual strives (but does not press) "to do his best," recognizes that he is important but that the professional team of which he is a member is more important than any individual, and where the "child" is ever remembered as the constant concern of all.

The process of establishing and maintaining a school system in which the "operating atmosphere" is of the nature just described is one of sharp challenge and satisfaction. Admittedly such an achievement demands individuals of stout heart and high-mindedness. The ways and means of this accomplishment are elusive and difficult to learn. But these are the affairs which govern "how good a school is."

The treatment of personnel administration in education presented here goes far in the presentation of both basic principles and practical techniques. Theory is supported by illustrations gathered from outstanding school systems. The authors reflect in striking fashion the solid scholarship and successful practice of what they preach.

JOHN GUY FOWLKES

A C K N O W L E D G M E N T S

The authors' indebtedness to the numerous persons, groups, and organizations who have contributed directly or indirectly to this book far exceeds their ability to express it. The idea for such a publication came from a graduate class in the field of personnel with which both authors were concerned. As the material was developed, it was used in mimeographed form by University of Denver graduate classes in Education.

The authors are deeply indebted for the many helpful suggestions from members of the classes and from Craig P. Minear, Executive Secretary of the Colorado Education Association, and James T. Ahern, Superintendent of Schools, Mamaroneck, New York, who were summer instructors at the University of Denver. Bill and Betty McDonough, graduate students at the university, did much research and clerical work which proved invaluable.

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Statistical information was furnished by the United States Office of Education, and the authors are especially appreciative of the help of the following members of the staff: Emery M. Foster, Head of Records and Analysis of the Research and Statistical Standards Sections, and Henry G. Badger, of the same sections.

Materials from numerous school systems have been used extensively by the authors as illustrative of good practice. These materials have been carefully documented and credited to the school systems, to whom the authors express deep appreciation. The authors' large debt to other writers is obvious throughout the book where it is appropriately footnoted, but this debt is also gratefully acknowledged at this point.

The clerical services at all stages were of utmost importance and the authors are appreciative of the services of Mrs. Marion Forker and Mrs. Elizabeth Lewis, secretaries in the Denver Public Schools, and to Mrs. Martha Odom and Mrs. Helen Roberts of the University of Denver secretarial staff.

Of great importance, the authors feel, are the illustrations which they believe contribute to the attractiveness and spirit of the publication. The authors were especially fortunate to have and they are deeply appreciative of the services of a Denver artist, Gene Ellis. He proved sensitive to the authors' purposes and strove unceasingly to be creative.

The authors have had the constructive assistance of John Guy Fowlkes, the Advisory Editor of the Exploration Series in Education, of which this publication is a part. His insight into professional considerations, his judgments, and his general helpfulness were of inestimable value. The authors are especially grateful for this assistance.

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A Point of View

The Function of Personnel Administration

In education, the improvement of the individual as a member of the social order is the expected end result of the educative process. This improvement develops essentially through the services of staff personnel. Because the human personality of the teacher and other staff members is the major factor in these services, the personnel area of educational administration assumes unusual significance. This aspect of administration is emerging out of a belated recognition that the human factors in education have received too little attention.

Administration, or management, as it is sometimes called, has the function of organizing the task and getting the job done. Too frequently, this area of administration is considered the direction of things, in contrast to the sounder idea that it is the development of people. Increasingly, the administrative process in education is becoming one of democratic leadership, where the administrator is working with professional colleagues, each recognizing his responsibilities. This should be particularly true in the area of personnel.

Since democracy acts through agents whose charge is from the groups and whose authority and compulsion to act come from the democratically operated whole, personnel administration has specific responsibilities. These responsibilities must be defined and delegated, and persons held accountable for their execution. This involves a series of human relationships that are as important as the carrying out of those responsibilities.

The authors will, therefore, be equally concerned with the handling

of personnel responsibilities in administration and the processes of human relationships that are involved. It is their intent to interrelate the administrative structure and the process. In some instances, structure or process will stand out more vividly than in others, but the authors' basic philosophy is that they must be seen in close relationship if personnel administration is to be truly efficient.

The essential task, then, is to determine relationships, suggest organization and function, and offer possible solutions for the personnel problems at the local, state, and national levels. The methodology of improving the human relationships of administration and suggesting opportunities for growth of personnel are corollary goals since they vitally concern the solution of problems.

The personnel program should be related to a plan of action, formal or informal, devised to aid in achieving the objectives of the school system. Nevertheless, personnel administration must be related to other aspects of general administration; it cannot be dealt with in isolation. Since we recognize that it is difficult to propose solutions to problems separate from actual school situations, the authors expect to emphasize problem solving in personnel processes.

In dealing with issues in the personnel field, the authors conceive their task to be one of constantly building for the future. With this concept they are in a position to deal both constructively and critically with the issues that are involved. In this relationship they expect to cite successful programs in operation in the public schools, as well as to make suggestions growing out of their own experience and philosophy.

Personnel programs, or practices, since use of the term "program" is often not justified, exist in all school systems, large or small. Within the existing structures, progress must take place and programs be developed.

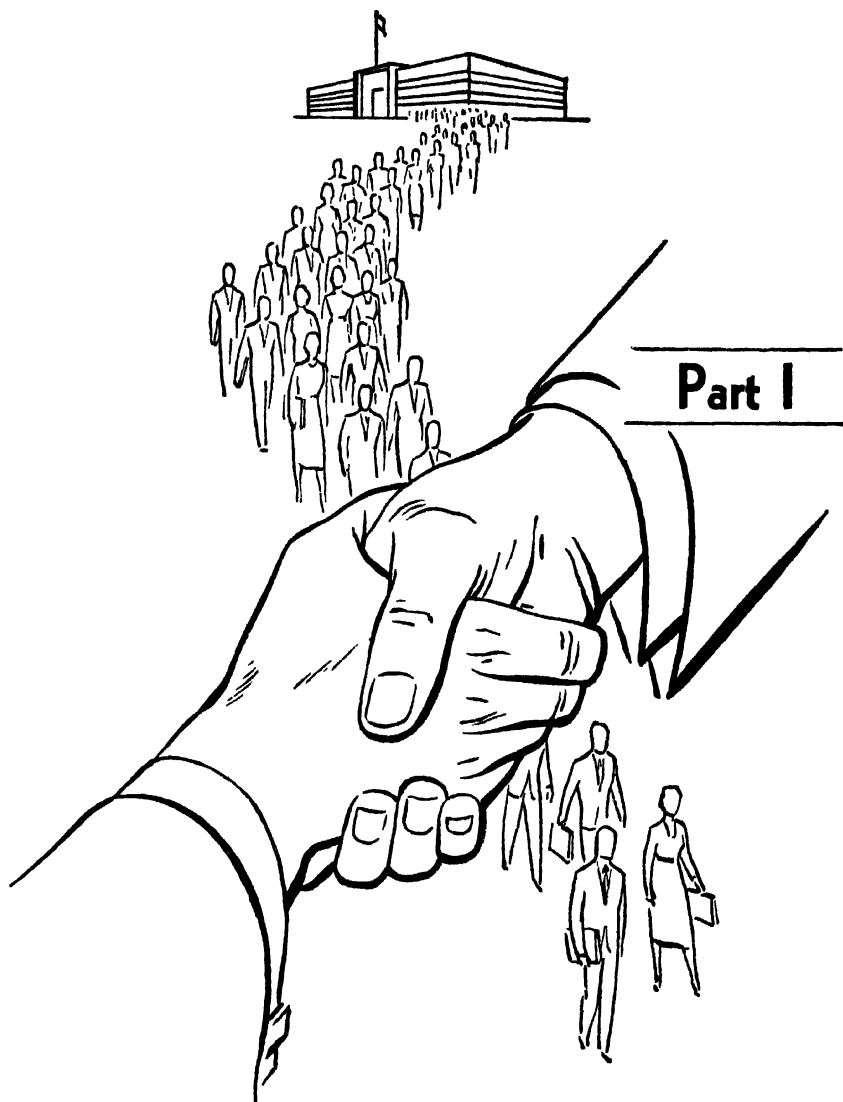
Fortunately, the employees of our country's school systems are becoming increasingly professional in their action and organizations. This situation provides a basis for a level of human relations not found elsewhere in administration, and it should constitute a challenge to both the school employee and the school administrator.

The authors expect to treat both process and structure in the light of this professional challenge. To do otherwise would be to overlook

the opportunity that confronts all who work in the field of education. At no time in our educational history have the various groups of employees in the American public school system been so determined to improve themselves and to merit fully the confidence the people place in public education. It is the hope of the authors that they may contribute to this improvement through providing an organized treatment of *Personnel Administration in Education*.

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**Relationships of the Personnel
to School Organization and Administration**

Matters of human relationships among the personnel cannot be separated from the organization and the administrative function in either theory or practice. This part of the text is devoted to developing this concept.

Certain basic factors are considered in this development. First, it is necessary to approach the problem quantitatively, viewing the personnel that is involved and considering the school structure in which it functions. The second step is to consider certain other aspects that merge with the quantitative one. These aspects are in the nature of things of the spirit and are represented by goals and ideas as well as ideals. They find expression in such considerations as morale, leadership, guiding principles, communication, improvement, and growth. These factors will be considered from both a fundamental and a developmental point of view. This aspect is to provide a framework in which the later phases of the text may be developed.

The aims of the authors, in this part, are to provide a basis for planning personnel policies and practices; to demonstrate that there is an area of administration in the field of personnel that can be studied; and that mastery of certain principles in personnel administration is both possible and desirable.



CHAPTER 1

The Extent and Nature of the Personnel in the Public Schools

It has been estimated that, of the general population in the United States, nearly one person out of every hundred is employed in some capacity in the public schools. This extensive number, approximating 1,500,000, is required to operate schools which serve about 30,000,000¹ children in the elementary and secondary schools of the nation.

This group of school employees is more extensive than any other public employee group except federal workers, who number approximately 2,500,000.² The membership of the school employees, including about 1,000,000 professionally prepared educational personnel, exceed manifold the membership of other professional areas such as law, medicine, and engineering, which number about 222,000, 210,-

000,⁴ and 400,000,⁵ respectively. The number of school employees will continue to grow rapidly since it is estimated the enrollment in elementary and secondary schools will increase about 10,000,000 by 1960, bringing the total enrollment to nearly 40,000,000.

The importance and influence, as well as the problems, connected with the management and functioning of such a large group of people suggest something of the task in the area of personnel administration in education.

SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION AND THE PERSONNEL PROBLEM

The problem is further accentuated by the realization that these school employees serve in 67,346 school districts⁶ in the 48 states and work for approximately the same number of boards of education as there are districts. While there are similarities between districts, particularly within states, as many different types of employment policies exist as there are school districts and school boards. The policy of control by local boards of education has created a situation unparalleled in the world.

The 67,346 school districts in the United States divide themselves roughly into two types, rural and urban. The rural districts vary in size from the type that supports only a one-room school with one teacher to large county districts like those in the South, which may be larger than many of the city districts.

An additional variation in their nature is that some districts operate no schools at all, while others operate elementary, secondary, and junior college programs. In some instances only one of these types of schools is operative. Table 1, which follows and which is quoted from the United States Census data, indicates the wide range, district size, and enrollment.

Many interesting facts illustrate the complexity of the rural school district organization problem. Over 11,000 districts of the 67,346 do not operate schools, transferring and transporting their pupils to other

districts, and employing no teachers. There are approximately 50,000 one-room, one-teacher schools which involve about 5 percent of the teacher force. Nearly 75 percent of the school districts employ fewer than 10 teachers. These conditions serve to complicate the personnel problem in the public schools because of the lack of personnel policies and the limited attention to personnel administration.

TABLE 1. Distribution of School Districts by Enrollment

Enrollment Size Group	Number of School Districts	Percent of Total	Enrollment of School Districts (000)	Percent of Total
U.S. total	67,346	100.0	20,241	100.0
25,000 or more	58	.1	3,852	19.0
12,000-25,000	97	.1	1,638	8.1
6,000-12,000	265	.4	2,091	10.3
3,000-6,000	611	.9	2,568	12.7
1,500-3,000	1,300	2.0	2,711	13.4
750-1,500	2,294	3.4	2,417	11.9
300-750	5,379	8.0	2,541	12.6
150-300	5,047	7.5	1,093	5.4
50-150	7,902	11.7	704	3.5
Less than 50	44,393	65.9	625	3.1

Urban school districts vary from towns of 2,500 population, with approximately 25 school employees, to such large metropolitan districts as New York, Chicago, San Francisco, and Denver which have in the neighborhood of 35,000, 21,750, 4,275, and 3,360 school employees,⁷ respectively. Such a framework, added to that described for rural districts, indicates that personnel policies and administration in the public schools are as varied as the differences in district and community size. The problem of establishing principles of personnel administration in such a variegated pattern is staggering, but a solution to the problem is vital. Otherwise, children in the public schools suffer, and public education is thoroughly handicapped.

STATE AND LOCAL CONTROLS

Personnel administration, as well as policy determination, takes place within the framework of the constitutional and statutory pro-

⁷ From letters to the authors from superintendents of the respective districts.

visions of each state; and no two states are alike. State regulations determine what degree of authority is retained at the state level and what degree is granted to local school districts, to be exercised by local boards of education. Generally speaking, only broad controls such as minimum educational and certification requirements, minimum salaries, and citizenship requirements are exercised at the state level. No control as to who is employed is exercised by any state. This leaves almost the whole problem of personnel policy determination to the local districts, where, in the final analysis, the authority lies in lay boards. It is granted that these boards have the benefit of professional leadership of varying types and abilities in the exercise of their responsibilities, but nonetheless this aspect of public control is probably the nearest approach to full exercise of local self-government that we have in our country.

Such a condition has both advantages and disadvantages. It provides a situation under which enlightened and able boards may set up policies far in advance of the general average found in the state or nation. On the other hand, it creates situations where boards may fail to provide even reasonable policies and where the most primitive and reactionary conditions exist.

When one considers that there are over 250,000 school trustees and members of boards of education, or one for about every six school employees, the close relationship to local self-government is further illustrated.

The pattern of state control and operation varies widely in different states. Figure 1 indicates the practice in the several states pertaining to the number of school districts. The number of districts is being very rapidly reduced through reorganization and consolidation. During the past five years the number has been reduced by about 20,000 and probably before this material can be made available to readers the number will have been greatly reduced from those indicated in the text and tables.

THE CLIMATE IN WHICH THE SCHOOL EMPLOYEE WORKS

The interesting situation wherein the school employee is selected by local authorities, but usually must meet state standards, suggests a

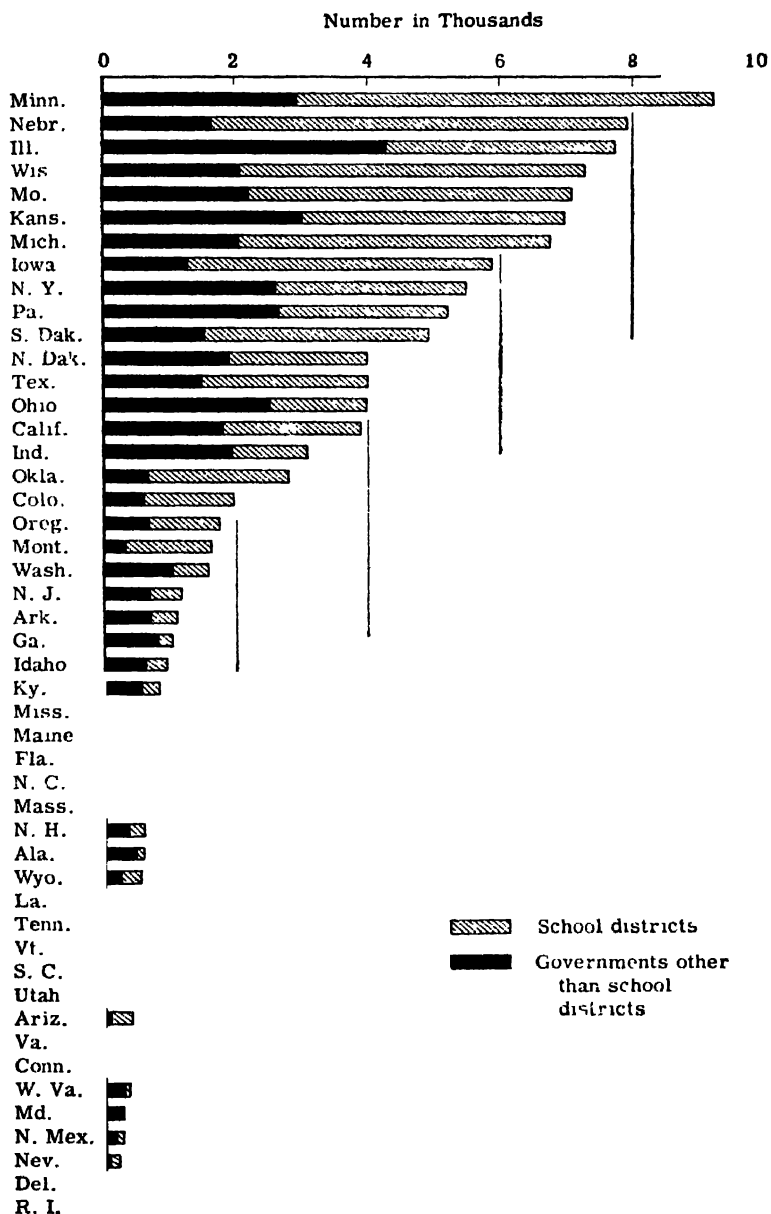


FIGURE 1. Number of Governments, by State:

condition found in few other employee-employer relationships. The teacher and other certificated personnel of the school system especially are in this category. Since in legal theory the public school is a state institution,⁸ school personnel are, at least indirectly, employees of the state. Nevertheless, they are responsible to local school district authorities in the performance of their duties. These conditions are cited with the view to establishing the difficulty and complexity of personnel policy-making and administration in our structure.

Public education thus takes place in our country in a variegated climate of small and large school districts, rural and urban communities, enlightened and reactionary boards, extensive or very limited state or local control, limited or able professional leadership, and poor or rich communities. Personnel administration as an integral part of the total administrative process is affected vitally by all these factors. To find ways for it to function in the maze of conditions, to make its contribution to the on-going educational process, and to contribute to the improvement of education generally is the challenge to the student of this phase of school administration.

CLASSIFICATION OF PERSONNEL

The personnel of the public schools may be classified for our purposes in two general ways: the professional or certificated personnel, and the nonteaching personnel. To understand fully the meaning of these classifications they must be broken down into the more familiar groups. The professional or certificated personnel includes teachers, principals, supervisory staff, administrative staff, and other specialized staff that requires special preparation and certificates, such as clinicians, nurses, and psychologists. These categories, familiar to most students of education, will be discussed further in a later chapter.

The nonteaching personnel includes operating, maintenance, clerical, and service employees. The operating employees are those associated with plant operation and management, such as cutodians, engineers, elevator operators, watchmen, and bus drivers. Maintenance employees are those charged with responsibility for the upkeep of the

school plant and equipment and include carpenters, plumbers, electricians, and mechanics. Clerical employees are clerks, stenographers, secretaries, filing clerks, and others with such responsibilities. Service employees are those assigned to such duties as food service. This group of employees is sometimes called the noncertificated personnel; however, the authors have deliberately chosen to use the term *nonteaching personnel* because some of the group must present rigid qualifications for employment and actually be licensed or rated before employment.

This classification, based on function, is in no respect an attempt to assign importance or rank to the personnel of the schools, but rather represents a convenient basis for a discussion of function and responsibility. It is not an attempt to segregate those whose work requires particular education or skills. In many cases, the nonteaching personnel must meet certain standards; for example, engineers may have to fulfill local or state requirements as well as civil service requirements of the school system. Similarly, secretarial employees may be required to meet high standards in their skills to attain classifications that will qualify them for employment. Throughout the text, an effort will be made to demonstrate the importance of each function and responsibility, and the necessity for teamwork and cooperation throughout the entire staff. Only the overall nature and extent of the public school personnel is covered in this introductory chapter. No attempt is made to define in detail the function and responsibility of the various groups. Such discussion will occur in Part II of the text.

EXTENT OF THE PERSONNEL

One of the most difficult tasks of the researcher in personnel administration is to obtain correct statistics indicating the number and type of employees in the public schools. The chief sources of data are the state departments of education, which compile figures from the local school districts. Usually these data collected at the state levels are summarized twelve to eighteen months after the employment of the personnel in local districts. By the time state data are reported to the Office of Education and made available nationally, they are usually from two to four years out of date. The National Education Association Research Division makes use of the Office of Education data and

prepares some estimates that are helpful. At the time this manuscript was being prepared, the latest available figures in certain fields were from the surveys of education published by the Office of Education. By combining these Office of Education figures with certain National Education Association estimates the statistical summary shown in Table 2 has been developed. These data represent the best available information.

TABLE 2. Statistical Summary of Public School Employees

Type of Employee	Total
Superintendents	14,612
Principals and supervisors	59,685
Classroom teachers	1,028,899
Attendance personnel	7,877
Clerical assistants	28,040
Physicians and dentists	7,072
Dental hygienists	706
Nurses	4,403
Recreation workers	4,116
Transportation workers	75,091
Cafeteria and lunchroom workers	21,308
Janitors, engineers, etc.	80,450
Carpenters, painters, and other craftsmen	9,008
Miscellaneous service workers	5,831
State department, education, and state board employees	11,130
Intermediate district employees	8,690
	1,366,918

The total in Table 2 does not quite reach our originally estimated total of 1,500,000 employees, due partly to the absence of certain classifications such as substitute teachers, and some part-time employees. The lag in reporting, already mentioned, is an additional factor, and unreported additions to the staff during the past two years comprise a substantial number. The reporting of nonteaching personnel is particularly unreliable, and the authors have with some difficulty assembled the estimates in Table 2.

It is evident from Table 2 that teachers comprise the major part of the employee group. Administrators and supervisors make up a substantial number. In the area of nonteaching personnel, the custodial and engineering groups and transportation workers comprise a large

block of employees. The clerical group is a large one, as is the cafeteria and lunchroom workers' group. These employees work in approximately 128,000 elementary schools and 25,000 secondary schools.

The extent and variety of staff necessary to man public education is further illustrated by the classifications of the Chicago, San Francisco, and Denver groups. Because school districts classify their employees differently, certain combinations of employees have been made

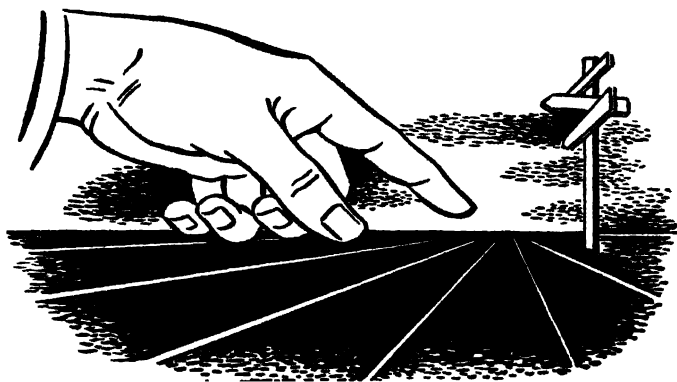
TABLE 3. Distribution of Personnel in Selected Cities

Position	Chicago	San Francisco	Denver
Certificated personnel			
Administrative staff	68	18	15
Principals and assistants	837	191	152
Supervisory staff	112	29	47
Teachers			
Elementary	8,585	1,520	1,302
Junior High	--	572	487
High School	4,435	591	387
Clinicians and nurses	27	--	56
Psychologists	66	3	4
Other	472	448	66
Subtotal	14,602	3,372	2,519
Nonteaching personnel			
Operating employees	3,022	463	255
Maintenance employees	389	81	118
Clerical	1,677	353	316
Service employees	2,062	6	156
Subtotal	7,150	903	845
Total	21,752	4,275	3,361

for convenience in Table 3. However, the totals are those furnished by the superintendents of schools in the reporting cities, and represent school year employment.

Further analysis of the personnel in the public schools will be made whenever a certain emphasis is being developed in the text. For example, status as to preparation, turnover, tenure, salaries, and certifications will be expanded as these subjects are treated in later chapters. Certain data that the authors would like to present are unavailable because of the statistical reporting problem already discussed. One interesting statistical item is that the teacher force consists approximately

of 77 percent women and 23 percent men. Some authorities believe that a work or professional force represented so dominantly by one or the other of the sexes poses certain specialized personnel problems. The student may well observe whether or not this point of view seems to have a sound footing as the problems are analyzed.



CHAPTER 2

Organization of the Personnel for Effective Service

The growing concept that the principal purpose of administration is to serve the needs of boys and girls in a learning situation has a direct relationship to the organization of the personnel. Under such a concept the guiding principles of organization are directed toward ways and means to meet the needs of children, in contrast to a pattern designed to promote the status of one or more persons charged with administrative responsibility.

Basic to any plan of personnel organization is a philosophy of education and human relationships. If the school as an institution is regarded as having but one purpose—that of facilitating learning, using that term in a broad sense—its personnel structure must be directed toward this end. If the philosophy as it pertains to both education and human relationships places *human values*, in pupil and staff personnel, at a high level and sees in their preservation a means of serving the

needs of society, then personnel practices must reflect that point of view.

The position that the purpose of the school is to facilitate learning, and that in effectively doing so human values in both children and staff must be preserved and extended, is so widespread that it seems safe to assume this position as a base in developing a set of principles to guide the organization of the personnel.

PRINCIPLES OF PERSONNEL ORGANIZATION

1. *The organization should reflect the educational philosophy and point of view as to human values.* If the educational philosophy is a democratic one and leads to staff participation in policy making and planning as well as the sharing of responsibility, then the organizational structure must admit of the opportunities to practice these approaches. The nature and extent of the staff itself must reflect these basic considerations. Job descriptions and responsibility as well as relationships must find their roots in the philosophy and point of view.

2. *Effective democracy must be reflected in the organization and the processes that are involved.* Democracy as it is referred to here has to do with a way of life and participation as a process of stimulation and growth. In no sense does this principle conflict with the need for careful planning and organization, creative leadership, and competent administration.

3. *Efficiency, using that term in its broad sense, must be obtained.* Efficiency, used in the common sense of the term, refers to getting a task completed with as little expenditure of time and energy as possible. A broader interpretation is necessary in respect to its use as a principle of staff organization. Certainly it is necessary to accomplish the task; what happens, in the process, however, is equally important. Efficiency, insofar as staff organization and functioning are concerned, goes beyond producing the desired results with the least expenditure of energy. If efficiency in its broad sense results, the task must not only be completed, but a measure of growth and development must take place that leaves the staff better able to attack a new problem.

4. *Creative abilities in the staff must be released through both the organization and the processes that take place.* The organization must

permit the creative abilities of the entire staff to be reflected in both process and result. This principle is closely related to the one in relation to philosophy and point of view and to those having to do with efficiency and effective democracy. It is recognized that all these principles are interrelated and inseparable in the actual administrative process. They are separated in this text for the sake of analysis and understanding. One of the basic considerations is that creativeness is not confined to those in line authority. Actually the details and responsibilities of persons in such positions may retard creativeness. This leads to the conclusion that outlets for all staff members must be developed; it is in reference to this approach that the principle has its best application.

5. *Growth and development must be fostered in the entire staff.* Any organization or procedure that creates a static situation in the staff has no place in the structure being projected in this text. The organization must permit growth and development in procedure, understanding, and performance. This proposition applies to both the considerably experienced staff and the staff being newly inducted, and equally to the certificated and nonteaching personnel. Growth usually takes place in relation to achievement and problem solving, so that evidences of success need to be noted, recognized, and, of course, evaluated in relation to further progress.

6. *Tensions and frustrations should be reduced to a minimum and each staff member allowed to function at the highest possible level in his work.* The reduction of tensions and frustrations in a staff situation in both relationships and working conditions has been frequently demonstrated as a principal means of improving output and morale. Frequently, tensions and frustrations develop through lack of communication, poor working conditions, failure to recognize competency, or efforts to improve those with limited ability. The lodging of unusually creative personnel in situations where creative outlets are not possible or appreciated, and failure to define and fix responsibility are other causes of tensions and frustrations.

7. *The need for cooperative planning and group evaluation must be recognized and opportunities allowed to practice them.* The educational task is one which requires a high degree of planning and evaluation.

The educational process is so complex and so many people are concerned with it that unless there is coöperative planning and group evaluation, there is little opportunity for real progress on the part of the entire staff. Depending upon the maturity and status of the staff, real situations that will allow for the practice of this principle need to be discovered. Frequently, rather simple situations need to be chosen as beginnings in this process. The emergence of leadership, outside of the administrative and supervisory staff, must especially be encouraged.

8. *The ordinary basic desires of individuals, such as security, belongingness, recognition, and new experience, must be acknowledged and opportunities allowed for their achievement.* These basic desires run deeper than their usual application in terms of legal tenure, formal acceptance in the group, recognition by title or position, and carrying out the day-to-day task. They are related to the fundamental principle of democracy, including respect for the individual, his rights, privileges, and status as a free citizen. Studies have repeatedly shown that individuals want to make progress. Progressing in these basic desires serves doubly in staff improvement. Praise for a job well done, kindly correction when there has been error, full acceptance by the group, being recognized as a valuable member of the group, and the continuous stimulation of new experience are means to an end in applying this principle.

9. *The delegation of authority and the fixing of responsibility, with the individual accepting it, must be a part of the organizational plan.* No other principle is quite so well established or so admittedly important in personnel organization as this one. Likewise, no other principle is so frequently violated. One of the real problems is the full delegation of authority and at the same time the fixing of responsibility. Human relations are probably more strained in this relationship than in any other. Only to the degree that the principle can be carried out in practice can the frustrations of personnel organization be eliminated. Because this principle is so closely associated with the task of getting a job done, it is very closely related to the efficiency of the entire organization. The real problem involves both method and degree. Later chapters in this text deal with the process in respect to this

principle. To a very considerable extent there is also involved the whole issue of job descriptions and type of personnel organization.

10. *The recognition of the need for the function of execution or administration must appear in the structure and must be defined.* The function of execution or administration in personnel organization should be recognized and defined. Too frequently it is viewed as unnecessary and without real place in the structure. Regardless of co-operative planning and policy formation as well as evaluation, the process of following through and carrying out the planning and policy is necessary. The fault of administration lies in usurping the entire planning and policy-making function. The function of execution after coöperative planning and policy making is carrying out the planning of the group; it is not the imposition of the will of one person upon others who may not understand or be sympathetic with the matter involved. The administration of personnel policies can be creative, and the leadership aspect can be made important. In no way do the principles in this text set aside the necessity of wise and able administration. Rather, there is required somewhat different emphasis that calls for the highest concept of administrative leadership.

11. *Channels of communication and the necessary organization to allow for group action must exist to permit the working of the principles enumerated.* Every good staff organization makes adequate provision for communication. In fact, most of the principles that are being developed are dependent upon communication processes. Understandings can only develop where communication exists, and this process implies the use of many types and channels of communication to accomplish the purpose. This aspect of staff organization is treated more fully in the chapter having to do with morale factors and leadership. While the chief value of the communication process lies in the direction of these aspects of personnel administration, its contribution to the executive phase of personnel administration must be recognized.

12. *The need for the leadership function must be recognized and not limited to those with administrative assignments.* The object of many of the principles that have been discussed is to permit the realization of this principle in regard to leadership. Staff organization is at its best when each person in the staff can be a leader in his own right

and in his own field. This point of view will be challenged by some, since they might conclude that such a situation would lead to strife and dissatisfaction. Such a condition is least likely to develop when people work as coequals in terms of their responsibilities and see their importance in the light of the whole process. Obviously, better leadership is required in a coöperative situation than in one where the authoritarian method is used. Likewise the chances for accomplishment are greatly increased. This principle is related to many others in this list, particularly those having to do with philosophy, effective democracy, staff growth, coöperative planning, developing creativeness, and efficiency in the broad sense of that term.

13. *The type of organization must permit the induction of new personnel on a constructive basis and recognize the responsibility of the permanent staff for their success.* One of the principal responsibilities of any professional group is the induction of new personnel. Every staff organization should admit its responsibility in this direction and provide ways and means to accomplish this purpose. If the staff really believes in preserving human values, its attention to this matter will be on such a basis as to contribute materially to the success of new personnel and at the same time improve those already within the staff. Likewise the satisfactions of these older staff members will be enhanced in the process since activities of this kind are "bread cast upon waters" returning to enrich the sender.

14. *The type and nature of the organization must be such as to allow for professional integrity in the staff.* Recognition that the teaching function is a public trust is basic to achieving many of these principles, but especially this one. How to retain professional integrity and at the same time be responsible to a lay board and the general public is one of the problems that requires continued effort and the highest levels of consideration. Further discussion of this problem will occur in both Parts III and IV of this text. It must be a basic consideration to staff organization or the human relations of the staff with the lay public will be on the wrong basis, and the selfishness that might develop would offset the achievement of the principles that have been suggested.

15. *Policy formulation by the staff, subject to approval by the lay governing board, is a responsibility of the entire group, and those that are affected by a given policy should have a part in its development.* The highest level of democratic group activity is involved in this principle. It is fully realized, democratic self-government, in its ultimate form. It is based on confidence in the group's ability to determine what is best for it as well as for the children and youth whose welfare is charged to the group. The chances for success of such a procedure are considerably enhanced when one considers that he is dealing with a professionally prepared group which is largely motivated by its interest in the welfare of children and youth and the community generally. The relationship of this principle to the others previously listed is so close that one realizes that its separation from any of the others is impossible. The highest levels of leadership are required to accomplish this principle. By this process the leader releases the creative talents of those with whom he works and adds their strength to his own.

PRINCIPLES RELATED TO PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Not only are these principles important considerations in relation to personnel organization, but they are also related to the problems of personnel administration. This is particularly true when personnel administration is viewed at the local level. The relation of the principles to local personnel problems will be treated in Part III of this text; only their relationships to staff organization (except for inevitable overlappings) will be treated in this chapter. Likewise certain relationships and job descriptions will be treated in Part II.

THE FUNCTION OF ORGANIZATION

The function of organization in the public school is to bring about a condition that will permit the achievement of the purposes of education. An organization has no purpose in itself except as it is a means to an end: serving the interest of education in the community. This oversimplification, consciously set out, has the view of deëmphasizing structure and accenting function. The problem is to find the organization that will reasonably meet the principles that have been developed

in this chapter and at the same time provide the machinery and the ministerial services that are necessary.

At the outset of this chapter the proposition was developed that the purpose of administration is primarily to serve the needs of boys and girls in a *learning situation*. This, then, is the function that should be the measuring stick of all personnel administration.

FACTORS AFFECTING PERSONNEL ORGANIZATION

To a very considerable extent local and state conditions influence organizational structure. Some of these considerations are:

1. Size and population of the school district
2. Local board rules and regulations
3. State laws and state board regulations
4. The local philosophy of education
5. Local lay leadership and attitudes toward education
6. State and local professional leadership
7. The ability and willingness to support education

These considerations apply to general administration and to its important aspect, personnel administration. Regardless, then, of any suggestions that may be made of the general nature of personnel organization or administration, it must always be adapted to the local situation where it operates.

EFFECT OF SIZE OF SCHOOL AND SCHOOL DISTRICT

In Chapter 1 it has been indicated that there are approximately 67,346 school districts in the United States. Of these districts, over 11,000 operate no schools at all, and approximately 50,000 operate one-teacher schools.

Obviously no *system* of personnel can exist in these districts except as they may be a part of some intermediate unit as a county, or associated in some way with a state-wide organization. Conditions of this kind are important factors that affect personnel administration in the United States and actually prevent well-organized personnel programs from being developed. Beyond this situation and before one approaches medium-sized schools, where the best personnel programs are

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likely to be found, there are thousands of schools that may be classified as small, including over 6000 high schools with enrollments of less than 100.

From these extremes to the other end of the scale, where the largest urban district may employ 35,000 staff personnel, is the range that one faces as he attempts to project types of organization. Extremes of smallness and bigness each seem to complicate the problem of personnel administration. Obviously, then, it is necessary to deal essentially with principles of organization that should govern regardless of size, and with types of organization that may be adapted insofar as possible to systems of any size. The temptation to draw examples and types from larger districts is inevitable, since actually only within the medium and larger districts is one likely to find a system or a well-developed method of personnel administration. However, an effort will be made throughout to demonstrate that principles are more important than system and that sound person-to-person relationships, which are possible even in the smallest districts, are the key to good personnel administration.

TYPES OF PERSONNEL ORGANIZATION

The concept set out at the beginning of this chapter—that the purpose of administration is to serve the needs of boys and girls in a learning situation—is also the criterion in both the pencil-and-paper stages of setting out the operating procedures, and the actual operating procedures as they involve human relationships. It must be recognized that a plan designed on paper to meet the needs of children may appear to be democratically efficient, but may break down because of the human relationships that are involved. Likewise, a paper plan that appears authoritarian may actually operate well because of unusual human relationships. These situations are suggested to emphasize the human-relations aspect and to warn the student about depending too much upon devices, charts, and theories of organization. This warning is not meant in any way to discourage the development of operational patterns. Rather, it is meant to discourage complete dependence upon patterns to obtain desirable results. This thought is well expressed in the following statement:

Human values must be placed *before* organization. We do not deny that organization is necessary to the happiness of any group if seen in its proper perspective. But organization is a means, not an end. Difficulties and problems cannot be resolved by making another rule, adding another special duty, or by devising a more intricate organizational system.

This delicate balance between the amount of organization needed in setting up the school program and the personalities involved is definitely an administrative responsibility. The time spent in building up and tending an elaborate piece of administrative machinery might be spent to much better advantage in studying the human factors involved in the group. Organization should become the servant, not the master, of the group.¹

One of the constant struggles in dealing with staff is to find types of organizations that will function and at the same time maintain the concepts of human relationships that are being developed. Generally, schools use a line or staff type of organization with combinations of both in some areas of administration and supervision. An examination of the effectiveness as well as the advantages and disadvantages or limitations of each of these is necessary.

Line and Staff Organization. The most common form of school personnel structure is the line and staff organization. The nature of the *line* function is that general authority rests with the electorate which chooses the board of education. The board in turn chooses a superintendent who selects principals, teachers, and other employees. The line of authority is from the board to the superintendent to the principal to the teacher, and through her to the child. In dealing with people in such an organization each person theoretically always deals with the person next in authority either above or below him.

Since the background of this concept of organization is probably more military than truly educational, it breaks down when someone in the line organization fails to carry out his function in the true spirit of coöperation or efficiency. Another disadvantage to such a plan is that ideas and suggestions for the good and the improvement of the organization do not always flow freely up and down the line. Frequently, too, the machinery of the organization becomes a major con-

sideration, in contrast to what it is supposed to accomplish. In large school organizations especially, the understanding that one does not go around or by-pass a superior creates many problems. Such a procedure, designed to assist in the smooth functioning of an organization, sometimes actually creates problems where a degree of unfairness or selfishness exists in one or more persons in the line.

The *line* organization involves the definite fixing of responsibility and provides an efficient and reasonably speedy means of getting things done. It is clear that such a plan has suggestions that are worthy of consideration for certain types of school operation. Reporting attendance is a good illustration of a function well adapted to a line procedure. On the other hand, where the problem is essentially one involving ideas and the bringing to bear of specialized information that may rest with someone well down in the line authority, it is obviously not the kind of organization designed to bring out the best resources in the personnel involved.

Another aspect that is common in school personnel organization is the *staff* relationship. In contrast to the line organization, which, to borrow an illustration from industry, is to produce products, the staff personnel is responsible for making progress. To illustrate further the function of each, the line organization in the school would be concerned with teaching reading, while staff organization, in the strictest sense, would be concerned with what is taught, how it is taught, and an evaluation of the results of teaching. The staff person is one who is expected to know all about one given subject or area. Positions of a strictly supervisory nature, curriculum coördinators, and research and test personnel are the best examples of staff jobs in the school system.

Weakness of Line and Staff Organization. The problems become apparent when one separates the two aspects of organization. Each is inadequate to accomplish the task in the school system. Even when they are combined under the best administrative leadership, the structure may break down through lack of coördination, poor human relationships, and the complexity of the job in education which requires elements of both procedures. For example, the teacher must be a factor in what is taught in reading if she is to take into consideration the differences in ability in her class; she must also determine to a

considerable degree how it is taught in order to maintain the interest of her pupils; if she fails to evaluate the results of her work, she will be only partially effective. It is therefore clear that at the level where the job of education actually is done, the *line* and *staff* relationships must come together if there is to be efficiency.

If it is necessary to bring the two functions together at this level, it is fairly obvious that a structure that will do so up and down the organization would be desirable. Theoretically, the most efficient organization would be the one-teacher school because all the functions are combined in one person and coordination is unnecessary. Actually, this is not true since it is not generally possible to combine in one person all the abilities that are required in the complex educational task. Therefore, means need to be found to overcome the weakness of the line and staff functions and to utilize their points of strength. Much consideration is being given to the type of organization that will accomplish this purpose in school systems.

The line organization with the imposition of staff leadership upon it is so traditional that it is difficult to find operational plans not dominated by these patterns. Commenting upon the characteristics of line and staff operations, Skogsberg states:

The influence of men like Dewey and Thorndike on the philosophy and method of the school throw into bold relief the limitations of the complex organization of staff consultants, special subject supervisors, general supervisors, department heads, and other numerous administrative officers that grow up under the application of the line and staff idea. Certain operational principles were overemphasized to the point where they became obstacles to progress.

. . . The rigidity of the organization reinforced stability to the point where it throttled flexibility and adaptability. Communication within the organization was almost solely one way—from top down. The manner in which authority was exercised, and the complexity of the organization that evolved, threw an aura of mystery around the area of school administration that, in itself made people hesitate to try to simplify it. The result of this imitation of industrial practices led to conflicts between the goals of the administrative organization as such and those of the education of

children. This imitation frequently placed too great an emphasis on the efficiency of the mechanical operation of the administrative organization.²

The challenge of the changing conception of the function of organization is also well expressed by Skogsberg, who points out that:

With these changes in our school and its curriculum has come the realization that school administration has a different and greater role to play. As an agency, it exists to facilitate the development of pupils in the instructional situation. It must provide the dynamic leadership necessary for the greatest growth of teachers and pupils. The human and material resources of the community setting must be utilized in the education of children. New problems must have solutions.

. . . We are again in a period when our operation has outdistanced our theory. We need to develop patterns of administration that will grow out of our educational program.³

RELATIONSHIP OF OPERATIONAL PATTERN TO BOARD OF EDUCATION

Basic to any operational pattern is the relationship to the board of education. Essentially there are two relationships in common usage. They are the *multiple* and *unit* types of board relationship to school administration. In the multiple type the board exercises its authority through two or more executives, each responsible for certain areas. The most common multiple plan is to have a superintendent responsible for and reporting to the board on educational matters, and a business manager responsible for and reporting to the board on financial and business matters. Figure 2 shows an organizational plan typical of this approach.

The unit plan is where the board is served by a single executive, with all the functions clearing through him and being responsible to him. Figure 3 illustrates the unit plan. The unit plan is recognized as more efficient and better geared to serve the functions of administration in providing educational opportunities for children.

The line relationship to this point—that is, a single executive re-

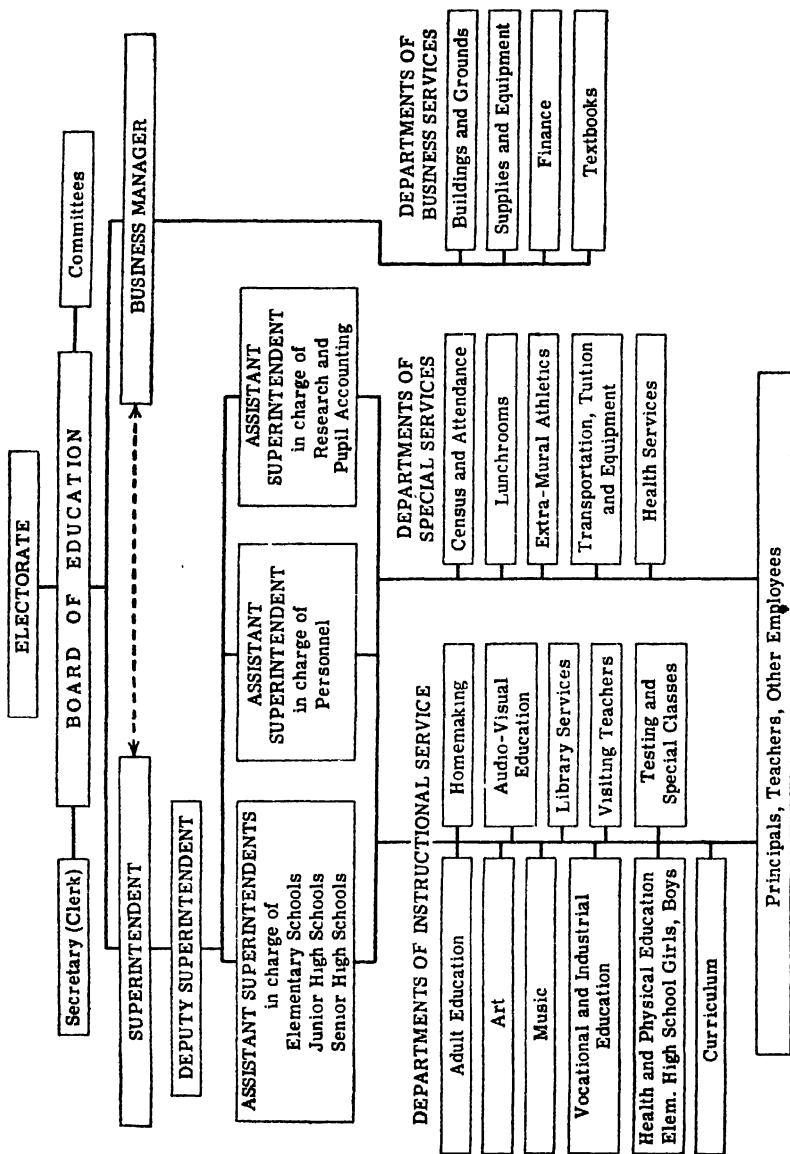


FIGURE 2. Organization Chart—Houston Public Schools.

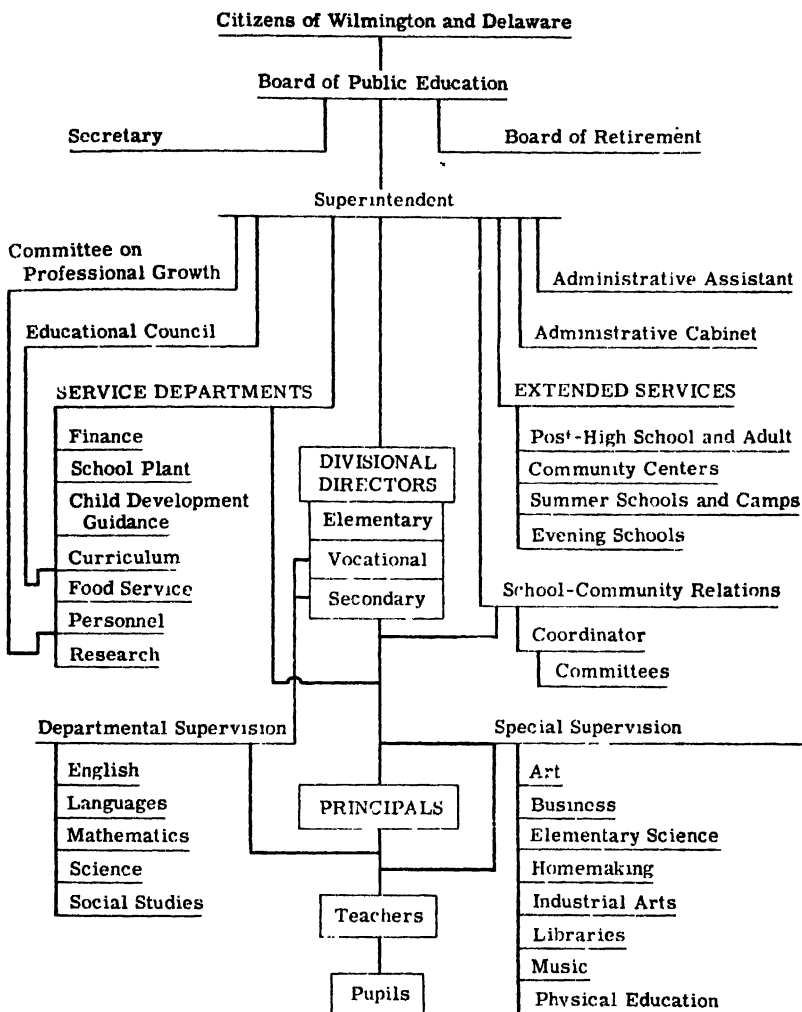


FIGURE 3. Plan of Administrative Organization--Wilmington Public Schools.

sponsible to the board—is not questioned by most educational authorities. It is between this point and the actual instructional relationships with children that the types of operation are questioned.

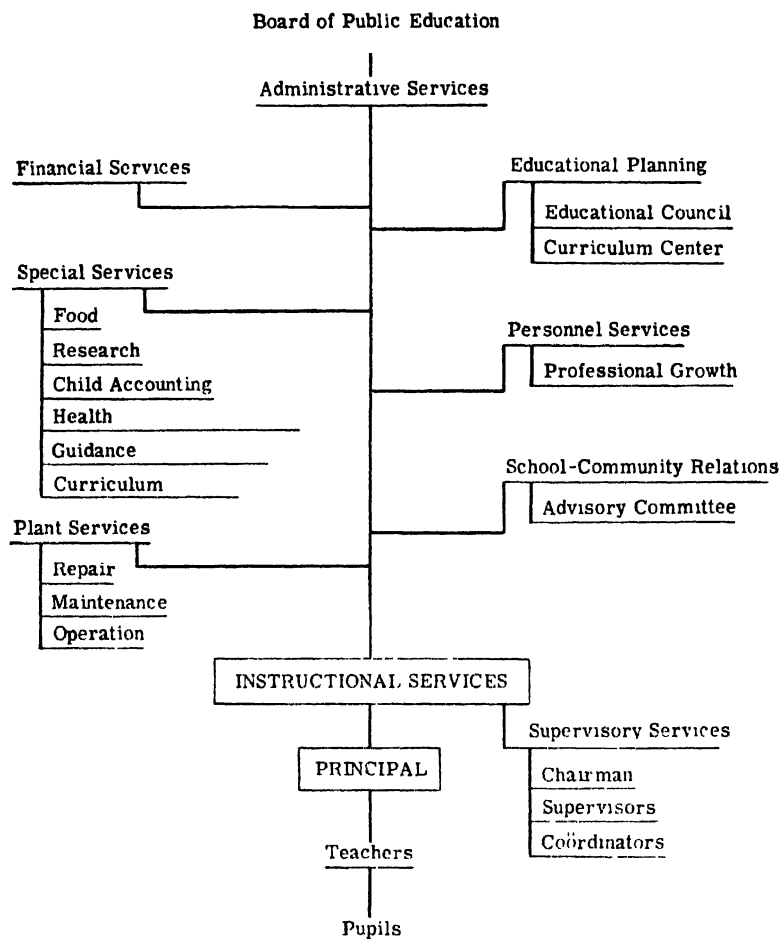


FIGURE 4. Chart of Functional Relations—Wilmington Public Schools.

To meet the criticisms of the line and staff plan, school systems are attempting to define function and relationship as in the case of Wilmington, Delaware, which charts the *functional relations* as shown in Figure 4, as well as the plan of *administrative organization* as shown in Figure 3.

Interpretation of any administrative plan is necessary, and the explanation offered by the Wilmington authorities, which follows, is an excellent example of such interpretation.

OPERATION OF THE WILMINGTON ADMINISTRATIVE PLAN

The organization outlined on these pages seeks to facilitate the utilization of all resources available in the implementation of educational philosophy and the attainment of educational objectives. It provides the means through which each member of the staff can draw on the training and experience of the many specialists employed; can participate in planning, educational and otherwise; and can understand clearly official relationships and lines of authority and responsibility.

As the person charged with the leadership of the educational unit, it is expected that the principal will be consulted concerning all problems or procedures affecting his area of assignment. All staff members placed under his direction should seek his help at all times. Directors and specialists who are concerned should likewise confer with him and work cooperatively on the matter under consideration.

Through the Educational Council, the Administrative Cabinet, and the Committee on Professional Growth, opportunity is provided for staff contribution and participation in the formulation of policies. The line of authority and responsibility runs from the board of education through the superintendent and the directors of the educational divisions to the principals of the educational units.

TYPICAL LINE AND STAFF CHART

The preceding plans are, of course, applicable to fairly large school systems. Figure 5 indicates the organization in a school system of small-to-medium size.

Organization of a unit type with a line and staff plan is typical of most school systems. This community educational operating plan is discussed fully by Skogsberg in a case study. The relationships are fully developed and the functions described.¹ It is impossible, as has

¹Skogsberg, *op. cit.*, p. 73-79.

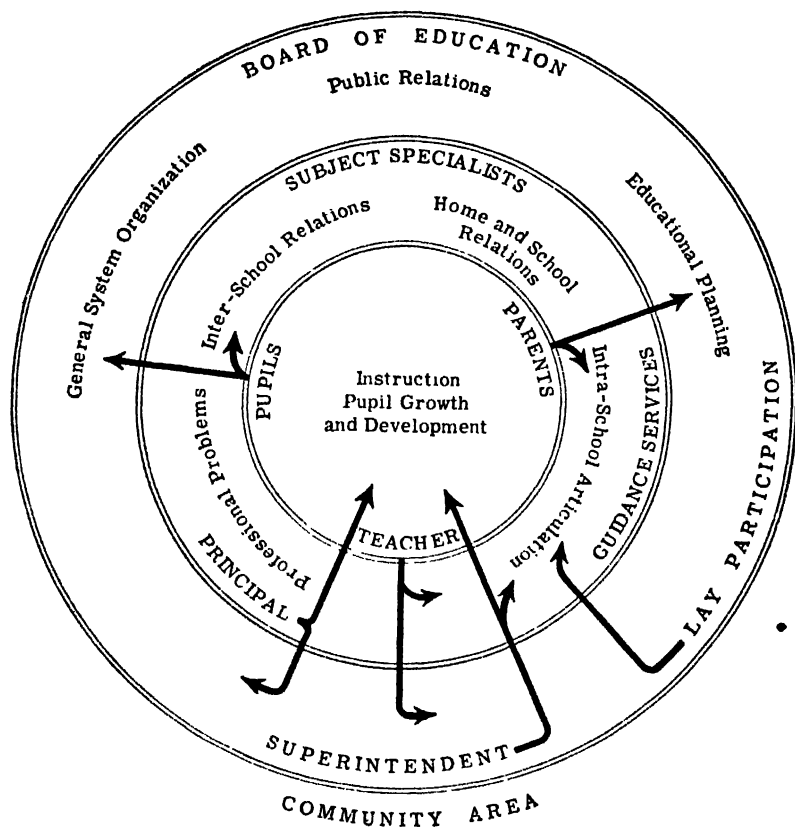


FIGURE 7. Future Operational Pattern.

Skogsberg's point of view is that we are in a transitional period wherein there is a desire on the part of many leaders in school administration to overcome the limitations of the line and staff plan. Certain innovations in terms of participation in policy formulation and planning, leadership as coordinative as opposed to directive, two-way communication, and pupil participation he recognizes as earmarks of a new approach. They are presently being used in a pattern of line and staff operation.

The literature bearing upon the problems discussed in this section, the results of recent studies and surveys, and particularly the criticisms that are being directed toward the traditional patterns, would seem to bear out the point of view that we are at least in a period of change in respect to organizational patterns, particularly in reference to their relationships to instruction. Whether the changes that will take place justify the term *transition* is difficult to determine.

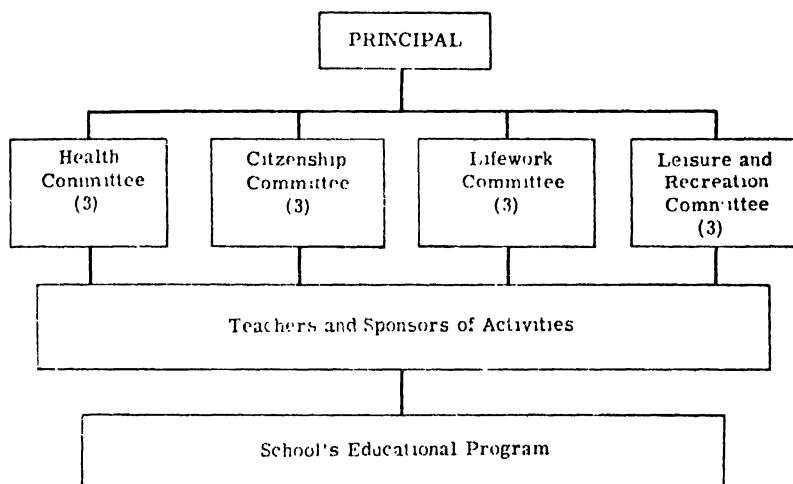


FIGURE 8. Illustrative Type of Organization: Purpose-Organized High School.

There is every reason to believe, however, that administrative and organizational patterns should be subject to constant examination using the best cooperative techniques that are known, being sure that the entire staff is considered and that the best lay knowledge and practice is utilized.

APPLICATION TO INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS

Not only in the total organization of a school system is serious thought being given to personnel organization. In addition, individual schools are undergoing change on both the elementary and secondary

levels. French, Hull, and Dodds have suggested that secondary schools offer good opportunities, because of their nature, to be "purpose organized." These authors state that the basic purposes of the secondary school could be emphasized by this type of organization and that instructional needs would be better served. The purpose-organized type of organization is illustrated by Figure 8. Each basic area, the authors suggest, would be served by a purpose coordinator, and all teachers and departments would be brought to bear upon a given area.⁷ It is through such suggestions as these and through experimental plans that the inadequacies of the predominant types of personnel organization will be corrected.

USING POLICY AS A WORKING TOOL

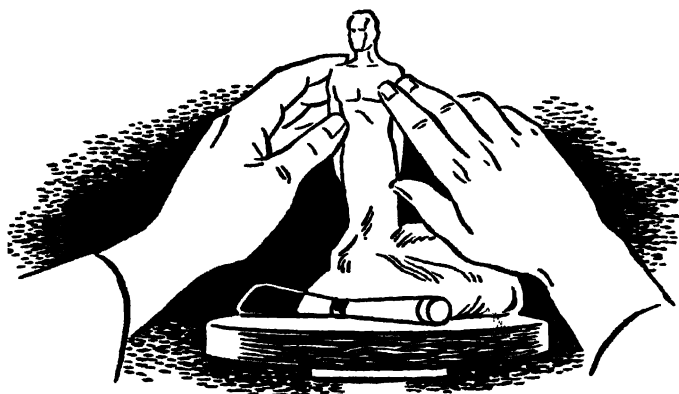
One of the most promising procedures to correct the weaknesses of typical personnel organizations is that of using policy development by the staff. If staff participation in policy making is practiced, the understanding and appreciation of the issues involved frequently leads to better cooperation and morale than could be obtained by very highly developed organizational patterns of a more conventional type. Policies set by a group, after a thorough consideration of the problems involved, are usually better adhered to than those imposed from above, even through the most carefully developed organization. Cooperative policy making, used as a working tool, is not a substitute for good organization, but frequently ably supplements it and especially improves morale.

One of the aspects of cooperative policy making that seems to aid in effecting improved organization is its use in defining job responsibility. One of the relationships that is frequently misunderstood is that between the teacher and the supervisor or coordinator. Adequate discussion of this relationship by the persons affected, with understanding developed as to the function and service of each, usually leads to improved appreciation and performance on the part of each. Usually, misunderstandings develop when people do not fully comprehend their respective functions. Policy formulation through group action is,

with adequate leadership, a means or tool to improve the organizational structure.

PERSON-TO-PERSON RELATIONS

Regardless of the organization that is developed or the policy forming procedures that are employed, the person-to-person relationships among the staff are the bases of staff morale and the smooth functioning of any organization. One of the principal aspects of leadership is the consideration and respect that the administrative staff have for the teaching and nonteaching groups. Similarly, respect and appreciation in the staff for the administrative function creates better understandings. This type of person-to-person relationship is quickly recognized and copied by all. The relationship leads to an appreciation of the dignity and worth of everyone in his particular job. Some school systems have succeeded in developing this approach to the point where it affects not only the staff but also the children in the school and the public at large. This type of person-to-person relationship pays big dividends in the smooth operation of the organization as well as in the personal satisfactions derived by its members. It has the same effect as courtesy in social usage and is a sound application of the golden rule.



CHAPTER 3

Morale Factors and Leadership in Personnel Administration

An examination of the professional literature and many local school policy statements affecting personnel reveals that much attention has been given to rules, regulations, and specific types of schedules and requirements. In the same documents very little attention has been given to a fundamental approach to the whole problem of personnel administration through the establishment of a basic philosophy to govern the development of these procedures. In fact, an examination of personnel policies within a given school system frequently reveals that many such policies are in actual conflict because they lack the foundation of a fundamental philosophy.

The importance of establishing a sound point of view is evident when one considers the various groups that are concerned or affected. In education, we are dealing with a commodity that is created and produced at maximum efficiency only when the human relationships involved are at a satisfactory level. This statement is true as it pertains

to the relationships involving citizens, parents, children, teachers, the administrative and supervisory staff, and the nonteaching personnel. Each of these groups is related to the others; the interrelationships that are required to produce the commodity known as "education" makes the problem a very involved one. It is true that material factors such as buildings, equipment, and supplies are important, but compared to the human factor they are relatively insignificant.

If the approach, then, could be built upon the assumption that improvement of human values and personality is the most important basis of personnel policy, an important beginning will have been established. In building this fundamental foundation, the place of the citizen, the child, and the school employee must be seen in proper relationships. It is easy for policy makers in education to lose sight of the basic purpose of public education in their zeal to protect staff members. The National Education Association Committee on Professional Ethics attempts to prevent this by stating in its *Code of Ethics* "that the primary purpose of education in the United States is to develop citizens who will safeguard, strengthen and improve the democracy obtained through a representative government."¹

The general-welfare aspect of this statement provides a point of reference for such a policy. It naturally flows from the general welfare of the entire population through the local professional group to the children of a particular school and then to the staff member ministering to them in his particular or specialized relationship.

This reasoning indicates that staff policy should have as an ultimate end the preservation of human values and personality in a democratic framework, and that, although the policy affecting the staff member should protect him in this same relationship, the general good or welfare is even more fundamental. In most cases, these relationships are complementary and do not in any way conflict; however, when they do, policies and decisions should be made in terms of the welfare of society generally and the long-time consideration of the welfare of the educational staff.

If such a point of view were not otherwise sound, it would be if only

to establish the soundest working relationships. Consideration of the general welfare ahead of selfish staff considerations in the long run brings the best public support to the schools and the best long-time return to the staff. To the thoughtful administrator or teacher who might consider relationships other than those based upon good human considerations will come the realization that he can succeed best when he uses humanistic policies, since he is so dependent upon the services of others. It should be made clear that such a procedure is in no sense advocating a "soft" or easy policy, but rather one which is effective in relation to the ends sought.

STAFF ORGANIZATION IN RELATION TO MORALE

Consideration of ways and means to effect staff organization is necessary under all circumstances, but especially where an attempt is being made to follow the concepts that are being developed in this chapter. Frequently, such consideration will involve examining existing patterns, policies, relationships, and, above all, the points of view of everyone concerned. It is important to realize that organization is not sacrificed through considerations of the type that have been suggested. However, wider participation in the development of personnel policies and more care as to their general nature must be exercised since the nature of the functioning organization is determined by how well the policies are carried out. It resolves itself into a situation where "the letter killeth but the spirit giveth life."

Principles of staff organization have been treated in Chapter 2. The relationship of morale to the nature of the organizational and administrative structure is too frequently overlooked. The two go hand in hand, and it is extremely difficult to tell which one is more influential in obtaining a smooth operating staff. The morale is usually low where the organization is inadequate, and the most elaborately planned organization cannot function effectively if morale is poor.

STAFF PARTICIPATION IN POLICY MAKING AND PLANNING

The place of staff participation in policy making and planning has been emphasized in Chapter 2, both directly and indirectly, in the authors' statement of guiding principles for staff organization. This

principle is so fundamental to the operation of the public educational force in a democratic society, that its soundness may be assumed when its use is tempered by common sense and good judgment.

Legal processes govern many phases of school operation, including certain staff regulations and relationships, and the student of personnel administration must consider such matters in planning for staff participation in policy making and planning. It becomes a part of the group process to see the entire sphere of responsibility and relationships in which the participation takes place.

The goal of staff participation is to bring to bear the best professional judgment and information that can be obtained in the solution of educational problems and to achieve at the same time a *morale* that will make the solutions effective. It is a commonly accepted point of view in democratic processes that *morale* develops proportionately to the part the group exercises in its own regulation and policy determination.

Recognizing, then, the relationship between staff participation and morale, the problem is to find ways and means to utilize the staff to achieve the ends sought. Apparently the best approach to this problem is one of general staff participation in policy making and planning. This permits the thinking and information in the hands of the entire personnel to be brought to bear upon the problems of school operation. Thus, policies and plans are formulated without loss of so-called "authority" and in an atmosphere where top leadership can assist in breaking through the structure of certain jobs and positions that seem to resist change or adaptation in either function or method.

This concept of educational leadership has been growing for many years although it has been quite slowly incorporated into our patterns of staff operation. The following quotation from an earlier article by one of the authors indicates something of the history and origin of the idea.

Staff participation in policy making and planning is not a new idea in school administration. As early as 1903, John Dewey was advocating "official and constitutional provision for submitting questions of methods of discipline and teaching, and the question of curriculum, textbooks, etc., to the discussion and decision of those actually engaged in the work of

teaching." As early as 1910, teachers' advisory councils were in existence and within ten years nearly one hundred cities were using them in some fashion.

The period in which the "participation" programs in school administration have been growing coincides with changing patterns of personnel relationships in other lines of employment, both public and private. It follows, in general, the efforts to make many phases of our lives, including the home, the school, and business and community organizations, more democratic with the view to strengthening democracy by providing opportunities to practice it in everyday life.²

The lag that is suggested in so far as educational personnel relationships are concerned is further evident when one considers the research and development in the field of industrial relations. Generally, when participatory processes have been employed, such specific findings as the following have been noted:

1. A greater personal effort and attention on the part of employees
2. A reduction in turnover, absenteeism, and tardiness
3. A reduction in the number of grievances and matters of dissatisfaction
4. A greater readiness to accept change
5. An improved quality of decisions made by those in responsible positions

Since we are dealing in education with a group largely professional in nature, with advantages of extensive preparation, we could reasonably expect even better results than that experienced by industry, if we diligently followed the suggested procedure.

FINDING METHODS OF GROUP ACTION

If the difficulties apparent in typical line-staff organizations in school systems are to be overcome, the problem is to find ways and means for policy making and planning groups to function. One of the major challenges in American education is the problem of how such groups can be organized to bring to bear the human resources of the staff and then to put the results into operation. It is as basic as democracy itself

and will be fully realized only as we grow in our concepts of democratic action as well as philosophy.

Because of the great variety of school systems—the differences in leadership, the nature of the staff, and even of the communities—no absolute formula for such policy making and planning groups can be advanced. However, certain principles are fairly clear. Such guiding principles might be:

1. Group action should develop in somewhat the same pattern that the community at large uses to solve its problems, although the educational group certainly has some responsibility for leadership in this process.
2. Basic policies of the board of education should encourage and perhaps officially recognize the function and authority of the policy making and planning group or groups.
3. The school administration should be committed to the proposition of democratic leadership and the utilization of the resources of the staff.
4. Policy making and planning groups should be representative of general administration, the supervisory staff, the elementary and secondary principals, and the teachers and nonteaching employees of the school system. Such groups should be large enough to provide representation, and small enough to exercise effectively the policy making and planning function.
5. The policy making and planning group should not be dominated by a particular interest, and provision should be made for periodic turnover in its membership through a democratic elective procedure.
6. Regular meetings of the group should be held with provisions for carefully planned agenda which at the same time do not bar initiation of problems by members of the group.
7. There should be provision in the organization for the election of officers in contrast to ex-officio relationships.
8. Regular means of communication to and from such a group to the entire staff should be established.
9. The results of the work of the group should be apparent in the school system through its recommendations having been incorporated into the operation of the system.
10. The matters for consideration by such a group should include employee welfare matters, educational issues, pupil personnel considera-

tions, and other matters within the scope of staff authority. The body should therefore be inclusive in its interests, utilizing special committees, perhaps outside its membership, but reporting to it, to handle certain research and details.

11. Regular channels of reporting to the administration and the school board should be established. The group's nature as a recommending body should be clearly understood by all concerned, and the legal function of the board of education should in no way be usurped.
12. Provision should be made for lay representatives or relationships in the group as they are needed or required in connection with the matters being considered.

These suggestions relate especially to the more or less permanent council or advisory council type of organization found in some school systems. Many special problems in the school system require study and these may be handled by special groups created for a single purpose. Many of the suggestions in respect to the more permanent organization apply to temporary study groups, especially if the expected outcome is a recommended policy or practice.

ESTABLISHING COMMUNICATION IN THE STAFF

One of the basic problems in any type of participation program is that of communication. In any organization there are certain basic problems in respect to communication; in one involving a complicated process like education, the problem is especially acute. Most important of these is that the persons concerned understand one another. When people speak and read the same language, it would appear that this problem should be easily solved. Actually, the basic problem in communication is comprehension of the meaning of what is being communicated. This indicates a need for basic philosophic understandings and agreed purposes and functions. It also argues for frequent enough communication so that it can be determined experimentally if understanding results.

OBSTACLES TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

If effective communication is essential to coöperative action, constant and thoughtful attention should be devoted to finding and

removing, as far as possible, the obstacles to high-quality communication. Experience has shown that such obstacles as the following interfere with effective communication: (1) semantic difficulties; (2) lack of skill in and understanding the use of tools of communication; (3) failure to develop a situation favorable to good communications, including providing time and facilities for it; and (4) the failure to recognize it as a two-way process. It is equally important to recognize those conditions which prompt good communicative processes.

MAKING COMMUNICATION MORE EFFECTIVE

Procedures in making communication more effective involve many aspects of good human relations and techniques. Some suggestions for improving communications follow: (1) develop good human relationships; (2) set up machinery for an interchange of ideas; (3) communicate at the level of interest and understanding; (4) use a variety of media, since some people respond to certain types better than others; (5) make written communications attractive and use pictorial and graphic illustrations wherever possible; (6) limit the number of communications to an amount that can be "consumed"; (7) maintain the same cooperative approach in communications that it is hoped that they will develop; and (8) provide an opportunity for the group to consider the matters which are the subject of the communication.

GENERAL PROBLEMS FACED BY ALL SCHOOL SYSTEMS

One of the other basic problems in dealing with this issue is that communication be two-way: that is, up and down the channels that are involved. It is not enough that the teachers and other employees in a system hear and even understand the remarks of the superintendent at the opening school institute. Even more important is that ways and means are provided for the school administrator to hear his employees' suggestions and ideas. It should also be understood that communication should be horizontal as well as vertical. Opportunities for communication between teachers, administrator groups, and between schools is of equal significance.

Another problem to be dealt with in this process is that of having regular channels by which communication can take place. Not only

must they be regularly established ones, but they should be sufficiently inclusive to cover the many aspects of school operation. Some school systems have good channels where curriculum and instruction are concerned and neglect the welfare aspects of employee relations. More frequently, too, this communication stops with school employees and does not reach the lay public.

Wide variation in method and procedure develops around the size of the school system. In a small school where the administrator meets and talks informally with his staff every day and knows each staff member well, the problem is entirely different from that of the large school system where the administrator is acquainted with a limited number of his staff and does not have an opportunity to discuss problems with them. It should not be assumed that in the first case no regular or formal channels are necessary, but in the second case they are indispensable. Each school system must tailor its plans for communication to its needs. The plans will vary from time to time depending upon the problems in hand, the administrative leadership in charge, and the nature of the staff. Obviously, in a staff where there is rapid expansion or change, certain needs exist which are not present in the staff where little change takes place.

One of the best devices to establish communication and understanding in the staff is the handbook. It may be an administrative handbook carrying statements of general policy and procedure or a personnel one which is largely turned toward staff matters. Obviously, depending upon the size and scope of the system, it might very well perform both functions. Since the handbook is both a communication and a coördination device, the authors have chosen to include a consideration of its nature and function in the chapter on coördination of personnel.

METHODS OF INTERNAL STAFF COMMUNICATION

Every staff organization should develop through experience the types and methods of communication that best fits its needs and achieves its purposes. The experience of many school systems has shown that the following are typical and useful means of accomplishing their goals and purposes:

1. Teacher's meetings and institutes
2. Bulletins and house organs
3. Councils and committees
4. Organizations of staff, such as Association for Childhood Education, Principals Clubs, Custodian and Maintenance Personnel, Clerical Staff, Substitute Teachers
5. Personal conferences
6. Workshops and pre- and post-school term sessions
7. The handbook

The predominance of the "meeting" or "group" process is evident in the above list, which suggests the importance of developing skill in handling this method of communication. Basic to group activity is a determination of the purpose of the activity. This purpose may be predetermined by the nature of the problem facing the group or it may be determined by the group itself. Usually the best procedure is to allow group participation in determining how they will study the problem. A sequence such as the following is generally useful in many different kinds of groups in the school and community:

1. Help the group identify the problem to be considered.
2. Determine the facts necessary to the solution of the problem or a modification in present practice.
3. Locate the source of the facts to be obtained and set up the means of obtaining them.
4. Study the conditions which surround the solution of the problem such as people's feelings, precedent, legal aspects, etc.
5. Determine in so far as possible the objectives and goals and secure the necessary consensus to permit concerted action.
6. Consider the alternatives which are involved so that the solution of one problem does not create others of equal magnitude.
7. Provide for evaluation of the process involved and keep the lines open for "next steps."

RELATIONSHIP TO DEMOCRATIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

The relationship of staff participation in policy making and planning to the democratic concept of administration is a growing concern on the part of both staff and administrators. According to a report of

the American Association of School Administrators, an efficient school administrator will, among other things, provide for:

1. Cooperative endeavor in the formulation of educational policies and the utilization of the intellectual and professional resources of the whole school staff
2. A plan by which any individual employee may present his suggestions and appeals directly to the superintendent of schools, when the usual administrative channels fail to function
3. Opportunity for organized groups within the personnel to offer their well-considered recommendations to the superintendent of schools and to the board of education³

The authors are in general agreement with the committee; however, they believe that perhaps the use of the term *representative* might be better in describing groups in the above statement. Not all organized groups are "representative" and the acceptance of recommendations from unrepresentative groups creates problems rather than solving them. The presence of such a statement in a professional publication of an administrative group does not mean that it is accepted or practiced by the rank and file of the group. It does, however, take on the significance of a goal or purpose of the more enlightened members of the group, and there is promise of its ultimate general acceptance. The embodiment of the ideas and goals that the authors are attempting to develop in this chapter in the official statement of a professional body is highly encouraging. A challenge is put to administrators in *Democracy in School Administration*, namely:

Democracy in school administration is uniquely urgent because it so directly affects what is done in the schools to develop democratic citizenship. It is vital because, if teachers are to convey democracy they must know what it is through their daily occupation.⁴

It would seem unnecessary to argue for democratic processes in a democracy; however, the strength of a democracy lies in the obtaining

of "democratic processes" in every phase of its operation. In this light every aspect of school staff operation should be safeguarded, and the publication to which we have previously referred points out significantly that autocracy or democracy are not necessarily confined to a particular type of school employee.

The impression is sometimes given that school administrators are inherently autocratic and that classroom teachers, *per se*, are democratic. As Koopman and his co-authors have pointed out, "Democracy does not mean accepting the decisions of the *politician* teacher or *cut-throat* ringleaders of a teacher group. Autocracy is autocracy whether practiced by an administrator, a classroom teacher, a student, or a member of the community." In other words, requests for more democracy in school affairs are not convincing when made by those who would merely shift the center of domination from one point to another, or when the term "democracy" is misused to condemn every person and every practice with which the individual happens to disagree. In such cases, the most difficult problem sometimes is found in rescuing "democracy" from its most vociferous advocates.⁵

Most impressions of the type referred to in the previous quotation grow out of misunderstandings, poor communication, and failure to define cooperatively the functions of the several jobs involved in school operations. Differences also develop from our using terms such as democracy without fully understanding or defining their meaning. Serious errors one could make in an effort to be "democratic" would be to fail to place or accept responsibility; be unwilling to make decisions, and to try to be a good fellow to the extent that there is refusal to take a stand on issues that must be faced from day to day. It is possible, the authors contend, to meet such responsibilities in a democratic way by staff participation in policy making and planning to the end that each person knows what is expected of him and is willing to carry his fair share of responsibility.

LEADERSHIP IN ADMINISTRATION

More and more the democratic concept of school administration implies a leadership relationship. This relationship is more harmonious

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

with the ends of education in a democratic society than is the line type of administration which simply implies orders being given and carried out in a chain of command through the system. The National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration have, over the past few years, given serious study to what constitutes leadership in education. In one of their recent publications they conclude:

The term leadership describes a relation between persons. It refers to interplay among persons. This relation results in one person having for a time the major responsibility for the activities and the welfare of the group. Leadership is displayed when one person affects another person or a group of persons in such a way that common direction is given to their efforts through this one person. Leadership is always accomplished in relation to others—never alone.

Democratic leadership always exercises its function toward the achievement of two ends. First, society itself is improved. Things get done. Toward this end, efficiency is the criterion. Second, those who get things done are themselves improved. The group which displays efficiency in getting things done is itself improved in the process. Individuals who make up the group are improved. Participants develop in their power to do: they mature in insight. Toward this end, growth is the criterion. To grow in power to do—to develop the competencies of persons and to improve the power of people to act together—*this is the fundamental purpose of education*. It gets things done. It improves the schools. But it does so within the context of American public education; the public, the whole public, performs this process of improvement. The goals of improvement are designed through public participation, and the method of reaching these goals grows out of continued participation.⁶

The goal of democratic leadership is not entirely altruistic. It is, of course, interested in the welfare of others and in the successful execution of a program that functions best when democratic procedures dominate its execution. It must be interested in such leadership because only through such processes can the leadership remain vital. No leader can expect to evolve for himself all the ideas he can fruitfully

use. He needs the ideas of his group; and he needs, in active deliberation with his group, or selected representatives, to evolve new ideas.

Responsibility for fostering an atmosphere which encourages individuals to contribute ideas is peculiarly upon the leader's shoulders. If the group finds ideas are welcomed and the contributor is credited with his suggestion, the resources of the group are at the leader's command. If the leader takes over the ideas from the group and uses them as his own, he dries up his source of strength and by this process ceases to be a leader.

TECHNIQUE AND STRUCTURE OF DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

Democratic educational leadership does not come about by accident, nor is it the result of a policy of *laissez-faire*. There is a technique and structure to democratic school administration. It comes from inward convictions and motivations. Such convictions as the following are typically held by those who operate in a democratic manner:

1. The welfare of the group is assured by the welfare of each individual
2. Decisions reached through the coöperative use of intelligence are, in total, more valid than decisions made by individuals
3. Every idea is entitled to a fair hearing
4. Every person can make a unique and important contribution
5. Growth comes from within the group rather than from without
6. Democracy is a way of living
7. Democratic methods are efficient methods⁷

These convictions result in action. This type of action stands in contrast to a one-man-show type of procedure. Such outward signs of the convictions are:

1. The processes of democratic leadership increase the powers of individuals to adjust, to solve problems, to gain satisfactory expression, to maintain emotional poise, and to grow in attitudes and mature in behavior
2. The effectiveness of such leadership is measured by what happens to people
3. Leadership grows out of the action of a group working on a problem and does not belong to any one individual as a privilege

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 19.

4. The most effective leadership comes from within the group and not from some outside source
5. Such leadership develops and uses for the common good the potentialities of each member of the group
6. Democratic leadership shares the formulation of policies and decisions with every person concerned with or to be affected by the decision insofar as possible
7. Democratic leadership assists the group in arriving at a consensus

Brief previous reference has been made to the morale aspects of personnel administration. Too frequently school administrators set morale as an immediate goal rather than seeing it as an outcome of the motivations and convictions to which we have referred. Morale, however, is an important outcome of democratic leadership and its nature may well be noted.

FACTORS INDICATIVE OF MORALE

The goal of leadership, using democratic procedures, is a staff with high morale which accomplishes the purposes of education. In terms of staff relationships, the expected outcomes are more effective service by the staff, greater satisfaction in its work, and the achievement of the ends of democratic education. The nature of staff morale is one of the best indications and means of judging a level of achievement. Such factors as the following are very closely related to morale and achievement; they are undoubtedly matters of great concern to the democratic leaders in school administration:

1. A feeling on the part of each person that his contribution is accorded merit by the group
2. A feeling that the organization to which he belongs is making a worthy contribution to the welfare of society
3. A feeling that he is becoming increasingly competent
4. A feeling that all members of the group are being fairly treated
5. Assurance that the channels of communication are free and open and will be used in reaching decisions
6. A feeling on the part of each person that he is participating in all aspects of a job

7. A clear understanding on the part of each individual of his duties and responsibilities in relation to the total work of the group
8. Assurance that the conditions necessary to economic, personal, and academic security are being provided so far as conditions permit
9. A feeling that the administrator shares the responsibility for the educational program with the group
10. A feeling that the administrator considers himself one of the group rather than one apart from the group⁹

THE PARTICIPATORY PROCESS

LIMITS TO STAFF PARTICIPATION

Wide differences of opinion exist with respect to the extent to which the participatory process may be applied. Certainly it will vary with the leadership of and the understanding that the staff has of the process. It will also vary with respect to the subjects to which it is applied. The authors' emphasis has been that its application is principally applicable to policy making and planning. It is recognized that execution of the policies and the planning represents an entirely different problem.

Not only is the matter of function concerned where execution is involved but there is also the question of expertness within a given area. An example will perhaps best illustrate the point. While staff participation in planning for a certain type of school might be highly desirable even in terms of its size and organization, the location of the school which involves expert study of school population, future growth, community development, and the like are certainly matters that do not lend themselves to extensive participation.

The point of view which the authors wish to stress is that the limitations on participation should be based upon the matter of function and not upon its philosophical aspects.

DEVELOPING PARTICIPATION IN POLICY MAKING AND PLANNING

Using a basic philosophy associated with the democratic concept such as we have tried to develop, the administrator will undoubtedly

turn to some type of participatory process which will accomplish the goals of the school system. Spalding outlines typical steps as follows:

First, he takes advantage of the knowledge which many persons have acquired in their study and experience, and he uses this to improve his schools. Second, he provides opportunities for individual employees to identify themselves with an important human activity, and to feel important because of this identification. Third, he provides opportunities for them to gain recognition from the group with which they work and from those for whom they work. Fourth, he gives the entire system a broader understanding of and sympathy with the problems which are faced by the administrative staff. Fifth, he is enabled to get better performance with them because they are carrying on activities which have resulted in a large measure from their own planning and which they wish to demonstrate to be wise. Sixth, he helps to facilitate the integration of each individual with many factors which impinge upon him and so helps him in his efforts toward integration of his personality. Seventh, he makes the work of the individual more interesting and purposeful as he becomes aware of its relation to the work of others.¹⁰

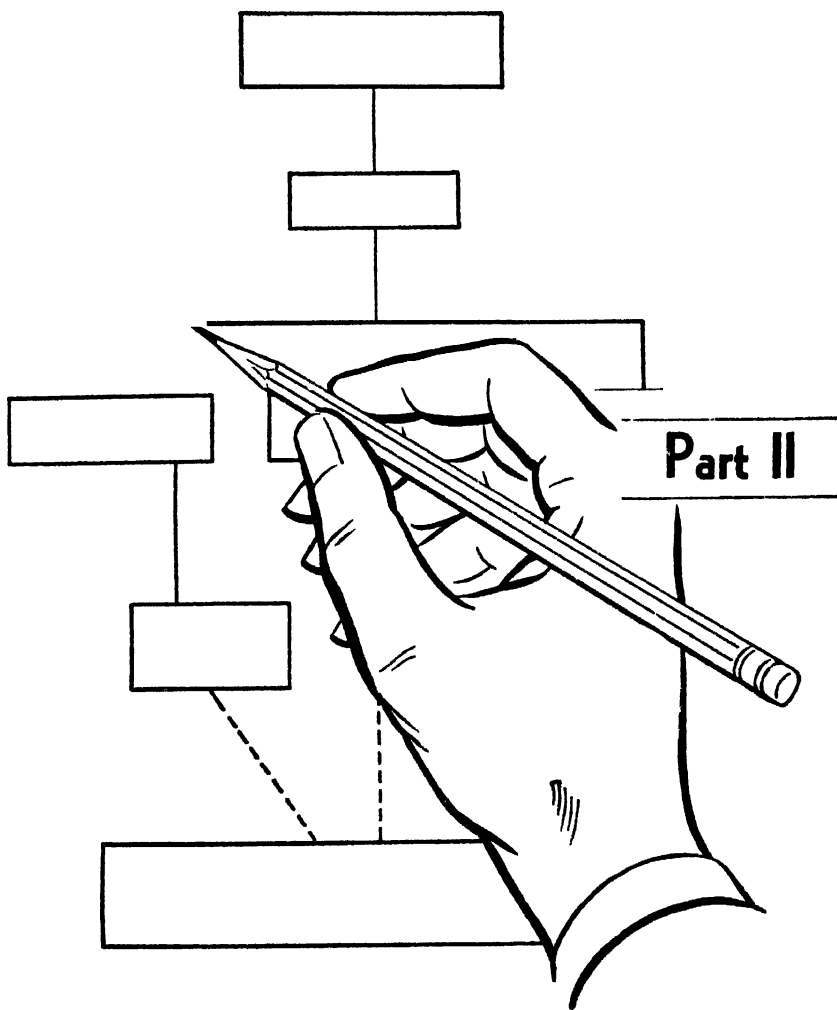
The preceding suggestions clearly place a premium upon the *group process* with the administrator as a leader. Within the school system will be found many groups, concerned with a variety of problems. From these groups should evolve many leaders. Every individual is important and is capable of making some contributions to the group. No one individual, be he superintendent, teacher, or custodian, has a monopoly on good ideas. One goal of good school administration is the development of leadership in many categories or areas. This objective is not only applicable to the system-wide administration, but is also desirable within the administration of the several school organizations in the school system.

Leadership in such matters is not confined to the teaching personnel or professional staff, but frequently emerges from the nonteaching personnel. No definite pattern or process can be set out to be used in a ready-made fashion, since each group has a different problem, is at a different stage in group thinking and acting, and has different leader-

ship. Participation in policy making and planning is based on the theory that all persons who are affected by a policy have a right to participate in policy formulation. As we promote better human relations among employees, we strengthen the group morale. Democratic leadership, in the sense that we have attempted to describe it, is so rare as to indicate that we are only beginning to understand what is involved in it.

The previous suggestions in regard to methods of staff participation, the motivations and convictions which should govern democratic educational leadership are means of carrying out the participatory process. In personnel administration in education, we are in the beginnings of the use of these procedures. The ingenious educational leader will find many variations and adaptations to make the *idea*, which is our main point here, work. The employee thoroughly interested in his job will welcome the responsibility which comes with the participatory process.

In projecting the type of personnel relationships that have been developed in this chapter, the authors have suggested an approach that has limitless opportunities, many pitfalls, and a goal to which we may well aspire. The opportunities are limitless because in tapping the resources of a staff as able as that which operates our schools, we open areas of strength not found in individuals or a limited group. There are pitfalls because our ability to exploit the participatory process fully has not been fully developed and there will be many mistakes made in its practice. It must ever be a goal, since as we become more efficient in the participatory process we open new vistas for improving education. Thus it becomes a process of hitching our wagon to a star, which is always just beyond reach.



Organization and Function of the Personnel

The personnel functions in the public schools are increasingly becoming a professional challenge. Because of the nature of the responsibilities, the size and scope of the personnel operations in school systems, and the variation in actual management and operational patterns and policies, it is increasingly difficult to delineate the jobs. However, with a view to better understanding the several functions to be performed, the more common positions will be described with reference to certain classifications, namely the administrative staff and supervisory staff, the teaching personnel, and those who make up the very important nonteaching element of the personnel.

Organization and function are more and more being determined by the group processes that have been emphasized in preceding chapters. Even with the coöperative determination of many of the assignments, however, responsibility must be designated and function assigned if the school system is to operate smoothly and accomplish the end that has been repeatedly emphasized: namely, providing for the educative process to function at its best.

The human relationships that are involved in coördinating the relationships of staff are far more difficult and important than charted responsibilities and lines of authority. This part of the text is directed toward analyzing responsibilities, outlining functions, and suggesting methods for coördinating the personnel.

While this section of the text deals with the work and responsibility of the various employee groups, personnel structure and organization will not be neglected. In no sense is the material in this section of the text meant to duplicate or attempt to cover administration courses for superintendents and principals, or supervision courses for those assigned responsibilities in respect to the improvement of instruction or methods courses for teachers. Such courses must continue to deal with the detail of duties of these employee groups. How these groups work together, their interdependence, and how they may be organized to accomplish the aims of the school organization is the goal of the authors in this portion of their text.



CHAPTER 4

The Work and Responsibility of the Administrative and Supervisory Staff

Earlier statements in the text have developed and amplified the idea that increasingly the administrative process in education is becoming one of democratic leadership, where the administrator works with professional colleagues, each recognizing his responsibilities. This concept is the basis for the development of this chapter. At the same time it is recognized that a more specific approach is necessary to help both the beginning administrator and the more experienced one who is seeking to improve his personnel processes. It is essential to analyze the responsibilities of the various administrative and supervisory positions and to develop their functions.

Two other implications grow out of the title. They are, first, to determine the status of administrative and supervisory positions, and, second, to determine their justification and function. The basis for evaluating their justification and function must be in relationship to

the goal of administration generally; that is, facilitating the learning process.

A BASIS FOR ANALYZING FUNCTIONS

The danger in any analysis of this kind is that status quo will be accepted as the ultimate development that is possible. This statement is made as a warning to the reader, but it is recognized, at the same time, that the accumulation of experience in the field of school administration is important, even though school administration is a young profession compared to many others requiring equivalent preparation and ability.

The discussion in Chapter 2 concerning line and staff relationships has demonstrated the difficulty in separating the administrative and supervisory responsibilities. This difficulty will be again encountered in this chapter as the work and responsibility of staff working in both the administrative and supervisory fields are discussed.

Reference to Chapter 1, which developed something of the climate in which these functions take place, will show that there is extreme variation. The small system may require all administrative and supervisory functions to be performed by one person, while the largest cities may have extensive division and specialization. This situation suggests that a reasonable treatment in this text might be to deal with the broad general responsibilities that are involved, indicating the basis for the division of responsibility to meet the special requirements of different school situations growing out of their size and the function to be performed.

THE COMMON ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY POSITIONS IN PUBLIC SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

The point of beginning for developing any type or size of administrative organization is the relationship to the lay board of education. In Chapter 2 the nature of general administration, including the relationship to the board of education, has been described. The *unit* and *multiple* types of organization have been discussed and illustrated by organizational charts shown in Figures 2 and 3 on pages 26 and 27. Since the unit, or single executive, relationship to the board of educa-

tion is recognized as a superior plan, it will be used as the basis for developing the pattern of administrative responsibility and function.

THE SUPERINTENDENCY

The executive relationship that has been suggested is usually lodged in a person with the title of Superintendent of Schools. Whether this person functions at the state level, in an intermediate unit such as a county, or in a local school district, the basic responsibilities are the same. Actual delegation of authority by the lay board is always a consideration, and there may also be legal requirements and restrictions which will lead to minor differences.

The history of this important position has been well delineated by Cubberly¹ and, more recently, in the *American School Superintendency*, the yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators.² Therefore, the emphasis in this text will be upon the work and responsibility of the position. Certain basic assumptions may be made in dealing with this position. They have been well expressed in the Yearbook already referred to, in the following statements:

The superintendency is the same in principle in a village as in a large city; the same duties are performed in a metropolitan area as in a rural community.

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The superintendency consists of a constellation of tasks which need to be performed. As soon as there is more than enough work for one full-time administrator, it becomes necessary to subdivide the work and organize a central office for the school system.

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If sound principles of management and organization are followed the task of administration is facilitated, but their neglect makes the task more difficult.

The school superintendent performs administrative and executive func-

tions, whereas the board of education carries legislative and policy making responsibilities.³

These assumptions apply whether the school district is small or large; however, the job differs in complexity with the size of the system. The problem is one of applying the principles of organization. "In thinking of administration as basically decision-making, and in building an organization to facilitate democratic administration, the principles of *span of control*, *delegation*, and *leadership* are essential concepts."⁴ The following are brief explanations of these principles:

Span of Control. ". . . means that for effective administration there is a limit to the number of individuals from whom the top administrator may personally receive reports and with whom he may discuss and determine programs of action."⁵

Delegation. ". . . the chief administrator must delegate to his assistants the authority commensurate with the responsibility which he gives to them."⁶

Leadership. The chief administrator must exercise the ability to generate enthusiasm and inspire work toward the solution of a problem or project. In this process his greatest challenge is in getting people to think through the issue and arrive at a group decision.

A perplexing problem of the chief administrator is the variety of assignments with which he must deal. Because of this he must limit the number of administrative assistants who report to him to a limited number, preferably from five to seven, in order to permit him to be reasonably well acquainted with the people and the problems with which he deals. To accomplish this organizational relationship he must delegate responsibility in line with the principle suggested above and exercise a leadership function that will accomplish the purposes of administration. Whatever the type or size of the school system he serves, the superintendent performs at least the following functions.

Planning and Evaluation. Basic to all educational procedure, and therefore basic to the work of the superintendent is the function of planning, to which is inevitably tied the function of evaluating the

results of that planning. Responsibility for this combined function is shared by the board of education and the superintendent, but the initiative, driving force, and technical guidance should be, and usually are, supplied by the superintendent. Planning covers all phases of the school program, including curriculum, building, public relations, personnel procedures, maintenance, budget, and all the manifold activities of the complex modern school system. Planning should certainly be for both regular and emergency situations, and all planning should make use not only of expert consultants, but, in line with democratic principles, of representatives from each phase of school activity which is involved. Evaluation of results, in order to be effective, must likewise involve those who participated in the planning.

Organization of the Units and Services of the School System. A school system is only as good as its organization; therefore, school organization is a second fundamental function of the superintendent. Two aspects of organization must be recognized: (1) types of school units, and (2) the central office staff through which the work of the superintendency must be performed. Types of school units involves grade grouping (high school, junior high, elementary, primary, kindergarten, etc.) as well as adult education, community college, and the like. The central staff depends, in large part, on the units and services offered, but it should not involve too many persons directly responsible to the superintendent, and it should have clearly outlined duties and responsibilities. While line or line-and-staff organizations vary widely, it should always be remembered that there must be only one chief executive in an effective organization, and that the chief executive is responsible for setting up an organization which best meets the needs of the schools. Furthermore, the success of that organization will depend ultimately on the personnel relationships which it affords.

Personnel Administration. The recruitment, retention, promotion, compensation, transfer, and separation of school employees constitute a vital area of school administration. In small systems such activities may be handled chiefly by the superintendent, with certain delegations, but in the larger systems the use of an assistant superintendent to take care of them has become a common pattern. Naturally, principals and other administrative and supervisory personnel will share in such

duties, but the personnel department will be the focal point. Keeping in contact with teacher education institutions, providing information to prospective teachers, interviewing, keeping records on all employees, and providing counsel are some of the other duties involved in personnel administration. It must be kept in mind that both certificated and noncertificated personnel are included. It must also be made clear that no delegation of personnel duties in any way relieves the superintendent of responsibility for the smooth functioning of his personnel department.

Business Duties, Finance, and School Plant. Since the lay public often rates a superintendent on the financial efficiency of the system, and because the operation of the schools depends on availability and use of supplies, a superintendent must give careful attention to this phase of his work. Larger systems require the services of a considerable number of specialists, such as business managers, purchasing agents, stock clerks, accountants, etc. School plant maintenance falls within this functional area so well that it can be included as a part of it. Proper channeling of requisitions, prompt delivery and safe storage of supplies, and correlation of supply needs with educational needs are of prime importance.

Services Auxiliary to Instruction. While instruction is the basic aim of schools, instruction may be aided through special services such as health clinics, food service, bus transportation, etc. In large systems such special services constitute so large a bloc of activities that special directors must be assigned to administer them. Many organizational plans have been developed to carry out these services; the important thing is that they be integrated into the total program.

Information and Advice. Under this heading are included not only school-public relations, but interstaff relations, and the superintendent does well to keep them under close personal supervision. The superintendent is accepted by the community as chief interpreter of the schools to the public, a function he serves partly through speeches, newspaper articles, and school-community activities. Frequently he is aided by an administrative assistant or director of information. The superintendent should by all means have an advisory committee, representative of his entire staff, for the purposes of securing suggestions,

considering general problems, interpreting school policies, and providing a two-way channel between chief administrator and employees. The superintendent should be the chief advisor for the school board, and he must be the middleman between his board and the public. In his public relations, one of the superintendent's chief duties will be setting up machinery for handling public complaints against and criticism of the schools.

Coördination and Direction. Organization provides the skeleton, but it takes coördination of all the elements in that organization to provide effective functioning. Here is where the real leadership of the superintendent comes into play. It is the superintendent's task to see to it that all of the organizational departments work in harmony toward realization of school objectives. The superintendent's office must be the clearinghouse for all activities, the hub of all the processes which he has helped plan. It is important for the superintendent to assure helpful contact between each school service and the classroom. In this endeavor competent principals in the various schools are of inestimable help. Group and individual conferences with assistant administrative personnel, advisory groups, careful records, and evaluation are some of the devices which have been used for pulling together the elements of school organization, but the personality of the superintendent still remains of vital importance.

Instruction. Instruction is the most important of the functions of the superintendent. Except in the smallest systems, of course, instruction is delegated to teachers, supervisors, and principals, but the real success of any superintendent may be measured by his effectiveness in improving instruction. Schools were established for the education of children. As the educational process has become more and more complex, the organization of instruction has resulted in specialized teachers of all types, as well as regular teachers, supervisors, coördinators, and other instructional personnel under many titles. Superintendents are often troubled by the fact that they can give so little time directly to instruction, but they are in reality giving more time than they realize. All of the school functions which occupy their days, and often their nights, are contributing indirectly to instruction by making instruction possible.

These functions have certain relationships. Of the four operational functions, *instruction* is the major one; *personnel*, *business*, and *auxiliary services* are the supplementary ones. *Planning* is the major systematizing function, implemented by *organization*, *information and advice*, and *coördination and direction*. These activities are present in one form or another in every school system. In analyzing the administrative process other authors have used a somewhat different organization of the functions of the chief administrator. Sears, in *The Nature*

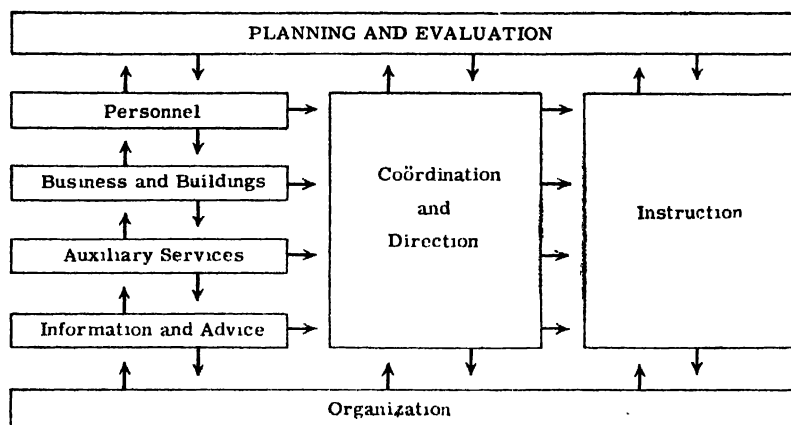


FIGURE 9. Functions of the Superintendency.

of the Administrative Process,⁷ discusses *planning*, *organization*, *directing*, *coördination*, *control*, *energizing*, and *responsibility for policy legislation*. The similarity of the functions listed from the American Association of School Administrators' Yearbook with those in the more academic treatment by Sears is evident.

The eight functions of the superintendency are graphically illustrated in Figure 9. This representation shows the relationship between planning and evaluation and the ultimate organization of the school system. *Planning and evaluation* overlie the entire figure. *Organization* provides a framework. *Personnel*, *business*, *buildings* and *auxiliary*

services establish the operating conditions which serve the educative process. *Information* and *advice* provide a two-way sharing of knowledge and ideas with the public and the school staff. *Coördination* binds all together so that the personnel and materials of the entire school system may be brought to bear on the major function of *instruction*.

The key to carrying out the functions is the manner in which the principles of *span of control*, *delegation*, and *leadership* are applied to a given situation. In general, their application to the functions will determine the number and nature of administrative assistants to the superintendent. No two situations are exactly alike, so it will be necessary to develop typical controls and delegations that might be made, to set out further the work and responsibility of the administrative and supervisory staff.

Considered from both the practical and theoretical standpoints, the work and responsibility of all other administrative and supervisory positions are included in the responsibility of the superintendent as the chief administrator. Further subdividing his work beyond himself is only a means to getting his tasks performed. In other words, his assistants are his additional hands to carry out his responsibilities. No new responsibilities are created by having assistants, although obviously certain specializations are obtained that could not be possessed by one individual.

The position that the chief administrator retains final responsibility although he may delegate important functions provides an interesting challenge. In the chapter on organization of personnel, a principle was developed that when responsibility and function is delegated, authority must accompany the delegation.

This principle must be maintained as the various specialties are assigned to assistants by the superintendent. In making these assignments, he presumably will follow this principle, but he still must be the one to answer to the board of education for the work of each. This, of course, is based upon the *unit type* of school organization. The advantage to the superintendent in spite of the problem of responsibility is that with specialized assistants he should be able to secure better information and advice than he could supply as a generalist in the field.

The discussions that follow of the work and responsibility of typical assistants to the superintendent will follow the concept that *all* the administrative and supervisory functions in a school system, either small or large, are expressed in a statement of functions like that set out earlier in the chapter and illustrated by Figure 9. All subdivisions of responsibility are simply a means to an end.

TYPICAL DELEGATIONS OF THE SUPERINTENDENT'S RESPONSIBILITY

The philosophy and basis for the delegation of the responsibility of the superintendent have been emphasized, and their relationship established to the size of the system and the nature of the responsibilities that are involved. Relationships in the administrative structure have been discussed and illustrated by numerous charts and organizational patterns representing typical school systems. It remains to discuss the nature of the typical delegations of work and responsibility.

An analysis of all types of administrative and supervisory organizations reveals that no two patterns are exactly alike, and that at the same time there are many common titles that have come into general usage. The common titles or designations of responsibility will be discussed in this section.

THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENCY

The most common form of the general delegation of the superintendent's responsibility is to an assistant superintendent. This delegation is found either in a general form, covering the broad areas of the superintendent's responsibilities, or more specifically to a specialized area of responsibility. If the delegation is upon the total area of responsibility, it frequently places the person in a deputy relationship, while other assistants may have specific responsibilities. More frequently, the delegation is in respect to special areas. The following are some of the specific delegations to assistant superintendents found in typical school organizations: Instruction, Elementary Education, Secondary Education, Business, Curriculum, School Plant, Personnel, Special Services, Public Relations, Adult Education, Administration, or such combinations of these as Business and School Plant, Special Services and Adult Education.

Such delegations involve the responsibilities and functions of the area involved, subject to assignment by the superintendent, and with coöperative and coördinate relationships to other persons of the same rank.

Job responsibilities vary from school system to school system. A very well-defined relationship involving an assistant superintendent in charge of instruction may be found in the Wilmington schools, where the instructional services are under the direction of an assistant superintendent. The following statements from the *Administrative Organization and Functions* handbook establish the job responsibility and the relationships that are involved.

POSITION: ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT

ASSIGNMENT: Chairman of educational division

Chairman of Educational Division

RESPONSIBILITY: In the performance of his duties as chairman of the educational division, the assistant superintendent is directly responsible to the superintendent of schools

DUTIES:

1. Serve as chairman of the Committee on Professional Growth and of the Educational Council
2. Prepare reports and bulletins covering the entire educational program as desirable or as may be required by the superintendent
3. Coordinate the activities of the four directors of the functional divisions, through the program of the Educational Council
4. Plan conferences for consideration of the entire educational program of the city schools⁸

Similar developments are possible in respect to any or all of the special areas that might be placed in charge of an assistant superintendent. The administrative handbooks and organizational charts of school systems are the best sources of information as to the manner in which school systems set up their respective organizations.

A modification of this type of delegation may occur in an assignment of responsibilities by the superintendent to an *administrative assistant*. This type of assistance is frequently employed in smaller

school systems where the designation of an assistant superintendent is not considered justified or advisable. It is also a method used in large school systems to supply certain types of help to the superintendent beyond that furnished by assistant superintendents. Occasionally, younger administrators in the staff are given such assignments in order to give them an internship type of experience and at the same time provide the chief administrator with needed assistance.

The qualifications of the assistant superintendent or even the administrative assistant must approximate those of the chief administrator and supplement and complement him in the specific field that is involved. In other words, the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction might well be expected to be the best-informed person in that area in the entire administrative and supervisory staff. Only if the superintendent is willing, in larger systems, to select outstanding persons in the assistant areas and seek their help and advice will he be successful and serve his school system well. On the other hand, the assistant must have a degree of loyalty and coöperation, as well as the specialized knowledge in his particular field, that will enable him to support the chief administrator and be a member of a team working toward the solution of the total school problem. Securing this coördination and teamwork is one of the chief tasks of the administrator.

THE DIRECTOR

The next most common type of delegation of a special function is to the position of director in the school system. Because of the level of operation in the administrative and supervisory structure, this position is even more common than that of the assistant superintendent. Only the position of principal is more common in the administrative structure than that of director. The creation of directorships is a very clear effort on the part of the superintendent to allocate specific administrative and sometimes supervisory responsibility. Typical directorships in school systems may be such inclusive ones as director of instruction, director of elementary schools, or director of secondary schools. When the directorship has such broad responsibility, it has many of the characteristics of the assistant superintendency.

The directorship is more frequently specialized in its function. Such

assignments as directorships of music, art, research, physical education, audio-visual services, and the like may be found in medium-sized and large school systems. In some organizations these directorships are usually responsible to the superintendent, whereas in others they will more often be responsible to assistant superintendents. Reference to Figures 2 and 5 on pages 26 and 30 will illustrate this relationship.

In most organizations the *line* and *staff* functions tend to come together in the position of director. The delegation to him is usually both an administrative and a supervisory one. This creates many problems in reference to selection of directors, the division of their time between the two functions, and especially in connection with the tendency for the administrative function to overshadow the supervisory one, which has closer relationships to the improvement of instruction.

In large organizations, efforts to overcome this problem usually take the form of employing staff personnel, responsible to the director, to serve in a supervisory capacity. This is not always possible in small school systems, and the administration is challenged to meet the issue through careful selection of personnel for the director's position, adequate job assignments, and leadership that places a premium on attention to the problem of improving instruction.

THE SUPERVISOR

This position is a common one in administrative and operational patterns and usually carries with it a *staff* relationship, charged with the improvement of instruction. As a rule this position meets the criteria developed in earlier chapters for staff relationships and is probably closest to the actual instructional situation. While the assignment of the supervisor may be a broad one, carrying such responsibility as the entire elementary or secondary instructional program, the more common approach is to subject areas such as music, art, physical education, and industrial arts.

The broad responsibility of improving instruction, with all its implications, is the usual function of the supervisor. This position, perhaps more than almost any other in the school system, requires expertness in a given field and ability to demonstrate superior teaching in the classroom.

In practice, two concepts have existed around the use of the term "supervisor." In most cases it designates a person with broad supervisory powers, assigned to improve instruction. However, it has sometimes been applied rather loosely to special teachers of certain subject-matter areas, particularly those in which the classroom teacher may have limited proficiency, such as music, art, and physical education. The term "Special Teacher" is better applied to this type of personnel, although admittedly the lines in some school systems are so obscure around this problem that clear designations are difficult.

Recently there have been efforts to develop better relationships between supervisory personnel and the classroom teacher and to make the supervisory function more coöperative in its nature. The term "supervisor," therefore, is found less frequently in general use, although the function remains. The use of such terms as "coördinator" and "helping teacher" is designed to remove the criticism of and objection to the supervisory function by certain critical groups. The assignment of such personnel to certain schools, where they are available to *assist* principals and teachers, seems to be an emerging pattern. Usually such personnel are drawn from the superior teacher group who are well acquainted with classroom problems, having been dealing with them recently. Some school systems make it a practice to rotate superior teachers in these assignments so that skill in classroom and pupil relationships will not be lost. Under such circumstances this type of personnel is protected from having to deal with administrative problems such as teacher rating, promotion, and transfer, with the view to encouraging the classroom teacher to feel more free to request help.

Supervisory staff are extremely important in the school system and their selection and function should have even greater care than in current practice. All too frequently, the supervisory staff do not have the opportunity they should have to influence policy making and planning as they relate particularly to instruction and the selection of personnel. To find ways and means to bring this expert help to bear on the total, and especially the instructional problem, is a constant challenge to the chief administrator. The relationship of the supervisory function to achieving the objectives of the school system is so

close that their separation is difficult. Because of this relationship the accomplishment of the school system objectives without some supervisory assistance is unlikely.

MODIFICATIONS OF THESE DELEGATIONS

Within the structure of the most common delegations of the superintendent's responsibility, other patterns or types of organization are possible. By combining functions and by establishing different lines of authority these basic or typical positions may serve in many different ways. The line of authority, where all three delegations are found, is from the superintendent to the assistant superintendent to the director and thence to the principal and teacher. The supervisor, serving in a true staff relationship, may be responsible to the superintendent, the assistant superintendent, or the director, depending upon the size and organization of the school system. In many small systems none of the three delegations is to be found and the superintendent operates directly to and through the school principal. It is to the direct operation of individual schools that we will next turn our attention. Most numerous and in many respects the most important are those delegations in the administrative and supervisory pattern that have to do with the direct operation of individual schools. The school principal is the usual approach to this direct operation and his responsibility and function are perhaps better defined than most administrative and supervisory assignments.

THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

The principal, depending upon the size of the school system, may be directly responsible to the superintendent, to an assistant superintendent, or to a director. In the direct relationship to either the superintendent or to one of his assistants the responsibility is usually a *line* one. Some school systems try to maintain the principal in a supervisory relationship to his school, but even in performing this function he can scarcely remove himself from the direct line relationship. The operating aspect of the principal's job is so dominant that too frequently this phase of his duties absorbs most of his time and energy. Increasingly, the principal's job is being seen in a broader relationship, and

the authors propose to define his functions upon this broader conception.

This redefinition of the principal's function grows out of basic changes in the nature of education, the change in the nature of the instructional staff, and the wider community aspects of his service. In no other administrative job is the responsibility quite so direct to facilitate and coördinate a good program of learning.

Basically, of course, the general function of the principal is to provide leadership in developing and operating the program of education, developed for the entire school district, and especially required by the neighborhood in which his school is located.

FUNCTIONS OF THE PRINCIPAL

It is possible to identify many duties and functions of the principal. For our purposes, since we are dealing with general personnel administration and not the specialized work of the principal, we shall, at the risk of oversimplification, group his functions into four areas. These areas will assume varying degrees of importance and emphasis, depending upon whether the principal is assigned to an elementary or secondary school or a combination of both. The functions, like those of the superintendent, will be present, however, regardless of type or size of school.

No attempt is being made in this chapter to discuss in detail the duties of school principals. Their functions, however, will be broadly defined. Numerous texts, typically *Duties of School Principals*, by Jacobson, Reavis, and Logsden,⁹ develop the duties in greater detail.

The functions under which we shall group the duties of the principal are *management* or the *executive function*, *organization*, *instructional improvement*, and *school-community relations*. The role of the principal in each of these is treated briefly in the following statements.

The Management Function. The term itself defines and explains this function. As schools have increased in size, this function has assumed greater prominence. The necessity to arrange schedules, and operate services like the school lunch, textbook rental or sales, report-

ing, supervision of plant, pupil transportation, budgetary processes, and other management phases make insistent demands upon the principal's time and are, of course, very important. How to keep this function from absorbing a disproportionate amount of the principal's time is currently an administrative challenge. The increased use of clerical assistance, group-planning procedures, and time- and labor-saving devices in office practice are means being used to keep this function from usurping more time than it deserves.

The Organization Function. Developing this phase of the principal's duties is not quite so easy since it involves certain philosophical concepts. It must be determined whether his organization is an authoritarian one or one in which leadership functions in a coöperative situation. It is in the latter relationship, although it is by all odds the more difficult, that the principal best carries out this function. Coördination of staff activities designed to help people find better ways to carry out their responsibilities is a challenge to the best leadership. The previous discussion of line and staff relationships is applicable here since it is beyond this type of pattern that the organization function, coöperatively conceived, is carried out. In no sense is this a proposal that the school be organized on a laissez-faire basis.

The Instructional Improvement Function. This function of the principal provides his greatest challenge for creative, stimulative leadership. This function breaks down into a number of activities. He is called upon to generate leadership in others, to serve as a consultant to his staff, to provide for adequate communication, to lead in curriculum activities, to guide in-service programs, to provide for evaluation activities, and to serve as overseer of the welfare of the entire school. Many of these aspects of his service will be stressed in Chapters 8 and 9.

The School-Community Function. The exercise of this function on the part of the principal grows out of the concept that the school is a center of community life and interest. It implies that the school cannot work effectively outside of the environment in which it exists, wherein other community activities are also affecting the lives of children and youth. The leadership challenge to the principal is also present in the exercise of this function, in that very often he is the best

situated to offer coördination in community activities. Studying the community with his staff and in coöperation with others, participating in its activities, fostering lay participation in the formulation of school policies and program, making the school through the use of its facilities a real community center, and adapting the school program to the community needs are means of carrying out this function.

Delegation of the Functions of the School Principal. In large school systems and school organizations, it is frequently necessary to delegate the functions of the principal to assistants. The same principles of delegation apply here that were developed in connection with the extension of the functions of the superintendent to his assistants. Because of the nature of the principal's job his assistants will be in the fields of his functions. Because this represents essentially the development in the areas of elementary and secondary school administration, reference will be made only to typical delegations of the principal's functions in terms of positions. The position of assistant principal, the dean, the coördinator, the director (of activities in one school), the counselor, and the registrar are typical delegations. Each of these positions will have certain responsibilities and functions depending upon the way the school or school system operates. Too little attention has been given to a study of responsibility and function of these positions. No position of assistance should be created unless its responsibilities and functions are adequately defined.

DELEGATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY FUNCTIONS IN THE NONTEACHING AREAS

The superintendent of schools who is the single executive of the board of education must make delegations, not only in the fields that have been mentioned in this chapter, but in the nonteaching areas as well. In large school systems, such nonteaching delegations are usually through assistant superintendents who have charge of functions such as business and school plant. In small school systems, it is frequently necessary to make direct delegations. The most common ones are plant maintenance, plant operation, pupil transportation, the area of supply, accounting and payroll, and others of a similar nature. Supervisory and directorial positions are either in existence or have to be created to carry out these services.

The relationship of these positions to the general administration and to subordinate administrative and supervisory positions is a *service* relationship to the educational function; therefore, it is important that nonteaching administrators and supervisors have their responsibilities and functions carefully defined.

COORDINATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY STAFF

The more complicated a staff becomes in terms of members and division of function, the more difficult becomes the task of coordinating its activities and services. Teamwork and morale are extremely important in this phase of personnel and the careful delineation of function and responsibility has a major part in maintaining them.

The principles of staff participation in policy making and planning, the use of sound communication processes, and the functioning of the chief administrator as a leader are of utmost importance. The application of the basic principles involving *span of control*, *delegation*, and *leadership* is vital throughout the administrative structure.

The physical arrangement of the administrative and supervisory personnel offices, both internally and relative to one another, is also a vital factor in the coordination process. Too frequently, administrative and supervisory-service offices are scattered in various buildings or poorly housed. This often causes lack of coordination and retards good personal relations within the staff. The chief administrator, recognizing the importance of the teaching staff and his relations with the lay public, frequently neglects his administrative and supervisory family in his rush for time to perform all of his tasks. This group is in a position to make or break the chief administrator, and his attention to their cooperation and loyalty, through sound procedures, is of major importance to his own success and the progress of the school system.

DETERMINING ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY LOADS

Much attention has been given to determining a reasonable work load for teachers and other employees of the school system. Almost none has been given to what constitutes optimum work loads for administrators and supervisors, in terms of their best services and in relation to their health and morale.

The principles of *span of control*, *delegation*, and *leadership* have

direct application in load determination. It has been established that most administrative load problems are involved with the great variety of functions that are included. If an application of the *span of control* principle could be made and each administrative officer had no more than five to seven separate areas reporting to him, the problem of load would be considerably lessened. One of the responsibilities of the chief administrator is to know his staff so well that he can judge the breadth and depth of load that his assistants can carry. Some persons have the capacity to carry greater loads than others and this leads to very unequal assignments. Too frequently, administrators are assigned all they can carry, which is grossly unfair to them and the school system. If the reporting groups are the same in function, their number may be materially increased. For example, an assistant superintendent in charge of elementary schools or a director in the same capacity might have all of the principals of elementary schools in the system reporting to him. The load in such circumstances might be less than that of an assistant superintendent in charge of business who might have only five or six areas reporting to him but all representing wholly different problems.

The principle of *delegation* is an equally determining factor in the load analysis. If the delegation of responsibility carries with it commensurate authority, the accumulation of administrative details and decisions at given points in the administrative structure will be greatly lessened and the positions of administrators made more tenable.

An analysis of administrative function in any school system in the light of these principles will be very revealing. Many load problems are created by administrators because of their lack of knowledge of the essential concepts of building an administrative structure.

The supervisory, or staff, relationship presents a somewhat different problem. Load in this connection can be defined in terms of services to be performed. Whether the supervisor or coordinator deals with 25 or 50 teachers can be determined largely by the expected services. These should be defined and all personnel involved, including teachers, should understand just what help can be extended.

Job analysis is not a very difficult process and yet it is too infrequently employed in relation to determining load and services. In many large school systems there are personnel proficient in such

analysis. School systems could well practice what they preach in this area and determine what they are expecting, or might reasonably expect, from their key personnel.

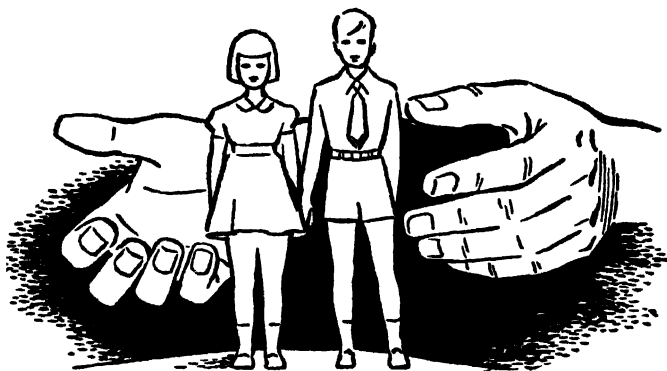
Job Analysis Procedures. The field of job analysis and job description in the professional field is one where much research and development is needed. Chapter 6, which deals with the nonteaching personnel, cites numerous descriptions of positions in this category. The procedure for applying the process to the professional fields of teaching, supervision, or administration is essentially the same.

The first step in the process is to determine the function to be performed in the educational organization. The second step is to organize the task to fit the function, including a sufficient description of the job. The amount of detail used should be determined by the understanding that exists concerning the position. At this point, the next step is to project the kind of person that those responsible believe would best fulfill the function to be performed. Such a description amounts to developing specifications. Some of the specifications usually carried in such statements include:

1. Personal data, such as age, sex, marital status and the like
2. Professional preparation, such as degrees and special kinds of preparation that may be necessary
3. Experience, such as teaching, administrative, related types and quality of experience
4. Other requirements such as cultural background, extracurricular or community experience, and such limitations as have been agreed are desirable
5. The legal or other requirements, such as evidence of citizenship, health, certification, and college record

The use of job descriptions and specifications permit both employer and the prospective employee to view the basis upon which the selection for the position will be made.

Staff morale is usually improved if job function is clearly defined and job specifications developed to meet them. This process of considering both aspects of job analysis may well be a matter for wide staff participation.



CHAPTER 5

The Work and Responsibility of the Teaching Personnel

Consideration of the work and responsibility of the teacher in the public school of the mid-twentieth century must be related to the historical development of the teaching profession, as revealed by a study of the history of education in both our own and other countries.

The development of a well-defined and generally accepted concept of the place of the teacher in our society has been slow and in great variety, since the public school system of this country is essentially local in its nature and, therefore, without uniformity in pattern. This local control on the part of communities has affected both schools and teachers, and has created a condition quite in contrast to that found in countries where education is controlled by the central government in respect to both curriculum and staff.

The situation in our own country, in harmony with our democratic philosophy, has permitted a gradual development in the recognition of the importance and prestige of the teacher. To a great extent the

teacher has had to earn this status. While there are certain traditions that have helped, it has essentially been a matter of demonstrating the importance of the teaching service. Gradually, it has been recognized that the social well-being of a community or a state is inexorably bound to its youth and, therefore, to their relations with the teacher and the schools.

In quite the same manner, it must be recognized that the welfare of the school system itself is primarily dependent upon the teacher. In more respects than one is the teacher the basic unit in the personnel organization of the school system. This paramount role in the educational process on the part of the teacher develops out of the fact that his is the vital daily contact with the boys and girls in our schools. Upon his characteristics, convictions, knowledge, skill, and capacity to work well with others, the effectiveness of the school must ultimately depend. An understanding, therefore, of the work and responsibility of the teacher in today's schools is of major importance in the personnel structure of the public schools.

The status of the teacher, which bears directly upon his work and responsibility, is to a degree expressed in the legal code that has developed in relation to the teacher's service and relationships. To consider only the laws which affect him, however, would be to circumscribe much too narrowly what society expects of him and what he sets up as his professional goals. The teacher's position, therefore, is an evolving one, in respect to his teaching relationships and other responsibilities. It is necessary, however, to analyze both of these aspects in considering the work and responsibility of the teacher.

THE LEGAL STATUS OF THE TEACHER

Authorities in the field of school law generally agree that the teacher is an employee of the school district, in contrast to the classification of public officer.¹ This is an important factor in dealing with the work and responsibility of the teacher. If teachers were classified as public officers, they would be subject to the body of law dealing with public officers in general. As public employees they are particularly

subject to the body of law that applies to them. The position of the public school teacher is created directly by the legislatures of the respective states and indirectly by the state constitutions because of their requirements to establish and maintain public schools.

This situation allows for a more professional development through statutes designed to develop the effectiveness of the teacher group. It also allows for protective legislation to permit teachers to carry out their specialized function. At the same time, they are subject to legislation designed to assure that they carry out the will of the public generally.

Regardless of their exact legal status, teachers occupy a position of public trust and responsibility. They are entrusted with society's most valuable asset—the children and youth—and they have the responsibility, along with other institutions such as the home, of molding character and citizenship.

One of the basic legal aspects of the teaching profession is the general requirement of a professional certificate before employment in the public schools. A certificate is a license to follow a profession, and it is regarded as a personal privilege but not a right. Other qualifications, usually determined by state statute and by local board of education policies, affect the practice of the profession of teaching.

The other most common qualifications are citizenship, age, physical condition, character, and personal qualifications. Most states require a certificate of the proper kind as a basis for legal employment as a teacher. No two states have exactly the same requirements for professional certification, and they are constantly changing. The best source of information available in this changing situation is the annual publication by Woellner and Wood,² which is regarded as the outstanding authority in this field.

It is not the purpose of this text to consider extensively matters of school law. Each state usually has a codified publication dealing with its school law, and the teacher is usually the subject of one of the most extensive chapters. Because of the autonomy of each state in the matter of public education, school administrators and teachers are urged

² R. C. Woellner and A. M. Wood, *Requirements for Certification of Teachers and School Administrators*, University of Chicago Press, revised annually.

to familiarize themselves with the laws that especially affect them.

Such laws usually cover certification, appointment, contracts, tenure and continuing contract, salaries, resignations, leaves, retirement, rights of appeal, and other areas.

LAW AFFECTING PUPIL-TEACHER RELATIONSHIPS

One of the most important aspects of law affecting teachers is that having to do with pupil relationships. Two of the more common phases of relationship that are dealt with by law are the matter of control of pupils' conduct, and the teacher's liability for pupil injury. In commenting upon the control of pupils, Remmlein states:

Pupils have the responsibility of obeying the school laws and the rules and regulations of the state and local governing officials; they have the duty of submitting to the orders of their teachers and other school authorities. Failure to do so may result in corporal punishment, suspension, or expulsion. Corporal punishment usually falls within the scope of the teacher's authority; suspension and expulsion are usually within the discretionary powers of the school board. In the power to regulate pupils' conduct, the teacher stands *in loco parentis*; that is, the teacher is conditionally privileged to take disciplinary steps under certain circumstances and for certain purposes.³

The same author cites legal authority in respect to the position of the teacher with regard to disciplinary action:

As a general rule, a school teacher, to a limited extent at least, stands *in loco parentis* to pupils under his charge, and may exercise such powers of control, restraint, and correction over them as may be reasonably necessary to enable him properly to perform his duties as teacher and accomplish the purposes of education, subject to such limitations and prohibitions as may be defined by legislative enactment. . . . If nothing unreasonable is demanded, he has the right to direct how and when each pupil shall attend to his appropriate duties, and the manner in which a pupil shall demean himself.⁴

Such general authority on the part of the teacher may be subject to state laws and regulations and the rules of local boards of education. Certain common-law principles in regard to the reasonableness of punishment, whether or not it is administered maliciously, and with consideration for the age and sex of pupils, are factors that must be observed in the exercise of the authority of the teacher.

The extent to which a teacher is liable for injuries sustained by a pupil depends upon the common-law principle of negligence, to which the teacher is not immune because of his employment by a subdivision of the state, although the state is usually not liable. Some states accept limited liability on the part of their political subdivisions and permit those units to purchase liability insurance covering their employees.

To a degree teachers are even more accountable than ordinary persons because pupils are in their care, and they have the duty of preventing injury as far as possible. The teacher is expected to exercise reasonable prudence in the prevention of injuries to the pupils in his charge and is further expected to exercise a degree of foresight in their prevention. This whole issue is so complicated that teachers and administrators are urged to familiarize themselves with the body of law and court decisions that affect their relationships with pupils. Additional references in the highly specialized area of school law that will be helpful are listed in the bibliography.

DEFINING THE TEACHER'S JOB

The nature of the teacher's job is so complicated that it defies definition in the sense that a mechanical or clerical task may be defined. However, failure to define it so that the teacher, the board of education, and the public generally may understand its scope has led to failure to achieve the highest standards of professional excellence. Such definition is most effective when set up in terms of goals of the professional group, which are implemented by adequate professional education and educational administration.

One of the characteristics of a profession is that it defines its services in terms of its social function. The teaching profession is increasingly adopting this point of view and is thus growing in professional stature. It is finding expression through its professional organization,

the National Education Association, which numbers in its membership more than one half of the teacher force in our country. The code of ethics of this organization is probably our best general definition of the teacher's job; it is expressed in terms of principles, consistent with the earlier statement that the most effective definition of the teacher's job is in terms of goals. The five principles set up as the *Code of Ethics* of the National Education Association are:

FIRST PRINCIPLE: The primary obligation of the teaching profession is to guide children, youth, and adults in the pursuit of knowledge and skills, to prepare them in the ways of democracy, and to help them to become happy, useful, self-supporting citizens. The ultimate strength of the nation lies in the social responsibility, economic competence, and moral strength of the individual American.

SECOND PRINCIPLE: The members of the teaching profession share with parents the task of shaping each student's purposes and acts toward socially acceptable ends. The effectiveness of many methods of teaching is dependent upon cooperative relationships with the home.

THIRD PRINCIPLE: The teaching profession occupies a position of public trust involving not only the individual teacher's personal conduct, but also the interaction of the school and the community. Education is most effective when these many relationships operate in a friendly, cooperative, and constructive manner.

FOURTH PRINCIPLE: The members of the teaching profession have inescapable obligations with respect to employment. These obligations are nearly always shared employer-employee responsibilities based upon mutual respect and good faith.

FIFTH PRINCIPLE: The teaching profession is distinguished from many other occupations by the uniqueness and quality of the professional relationships among all teachers. Community support and respect are influenced by the standards of teachers and their attitudes toward teaching and other teachers.⁵

An analysis of these principles indicates that they are essentially concerned with a series of human relationships. Because the social order is constantly changing, these relationships assume different proportions from time to time. However, there are certain basic and continuing relationships that essentially make up the work of the teacher. The following section will attempt to develop these relationships. In fact, the next two sections, which deal with the relationships and functions of the teacher, are the authors' attempts to delineate further the work and responsibility of the teacher.

THE RELATIONSHIPS OF THE TEACHER

Four basic relationships are apparent in the work of the teacher. They are those with (1) children, (2) parents and citizens, (3) administrative and supervisory staff, and (4) other school staff. These relationships are, of course, not isolated ones, and certain responsibilities of the teacher may involve the whole gamut of these relationships. For the sake of analysis, comments will be made around each of them.

PUPIL RELATIONSHIPS

The primary relationship of the teacher is with the children he teaches. The title of a public relations pamphlet, *It Starts in the Classroom*,⁶ has a broader application than it probably intended. This publication, referring essentially to public relations, suggests the basis for personnel relations as well. Actually, then, the teacher-pupil relationship is the alpha and omega of education. The well-known story in which James A. Garfield described a university as the master teacher Mark Hopkins on one end of a log and a student on the other illustrates this basic concept. This relationship is very closely associated with the first principle of the National Education Association *Code of Ethics*, which sets out the following six points as suggestions for ways of fulfilling the obligations of this principle.

. . . the teacher will—

1. Deal justly and impartially with students regardless of their physical, mental, emotional, political, economic, social, racial, or religious characteristics

2. Recognize the differences among students and seek to meet their individual needs
3. Encourage students to formulate and work for high individual goals in the development of their physical, intellectual, creative, and spiritual endowments
4. Aid students to develop an understanding and appreciation not only of opportunities and benefits of American democracy, but also of their obligations to it
5. Respect the right of every student to have confidential information about himself withheld except when its release is to authorized agencies or is required by law
6. Accept no remuneration for tutoring except in accordance with approved policies of the governing board²

A study of the pupil-teacher relationships which grow out of the philosophy of education being followed by a school system is, of course, a more effective way to determine what these relationships should and will be in a given situation. Adequate relationships with pupils is one of the most significant factors in teaching success. Teachers are entitled to understand the expectations of a school system in regard to this aspect of their work.

PARENT AND CITIZEN RELATIONSHIP

There is a direct correlation between effective teacher relations with children and their parents. Studies have revealed the same concerns by both groups in relation to a given school situation. Therefore, sound and effective parent relations have as their basis adequate pupil relations.

The second principle of the National Education Association *Code of Ethics* deals basically with this problem. The following points are fundamental in fulfilling the obligations of this relationship:

. . . the teacher will—

1. Respect the basic responsibility of parents for their children
2. Seek to establish friendly and coöperative relationships with the home

3. Help to increase the student's confidence in his own home and avoid disparaging remarks which might undermine that confidence
4. Provide parents with information that will serve the best interests of their children, and be discreet with information received from parents
5. Keep parents informed about the progress of their children as interpreted in terms of the purposes of the school⁸

Relationships with citizens who are not parents with children in school should be governed by sound human relationships in which the teacher recognizes this group as supporters of the school, possessing citizenship responsibility and interest. This group is too frequently ignored. Because of the absence of easy channels of communication with this group (such as the children in school provide with the parent group), the process of communication should receive particular stress.

The third principle of the National Education Association *Code of Ethics* bears directly upon the teacher's general relationship to the public, which involves both the parents and those who do not have children in school. In fulfilling this principle of the code,

. . . the teacher will—

1. Adhere to any reasonable pattern of behavior accepted by the community for professional persons
2. Perform the duties of citizenship, and participate in community activities with due consideration for his obligations to his students, his family, and himself
3. Discuss controversial issues from an objective point of view, thereby keeping his class free from partisan opinions
4. Recognize that the public schools belong to the people of the community, encourage lay participation in shaping the purposes of the school, and strive to keep the public informed of the educational program which is being provided
5. Respect the community in which he is employed and be loyal to the school system, community, state, and nation
6. Work to improve education in the community and to strengthen the community's moral, spiritual, and intellectual life⁹

The growing participation on the part of citizens in the affairs of their public schools during the past few years should be welcomed by educators. By this process better community support and a partnership in meeting educational problems should be encouraged. One of the interesting developments in this field is the work of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools. Supported by the Carnegie Corporation, the General Education Board, the Fund for the Advancement of Education, the New York Community Trust, and the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, this organization has stimulated lay interest to the point where thousands of lay committees are at work throughout the country. Their pamphlet entitled *How Can We Help Get Better Schools?*¹⁰ describes their philosophy and procedure for the reader.

RELATIONSHIPS OF THE TEACHER WITH ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY STAFF

It would appear that this area of relationship should be well defined and have, in the light of the professional development in education, clearly defined and accepted patterns. Actually, this is not the case, and no area of relationship on the part of either the teacher or the administrative and supervisory staff deserves more attention.

The history of these relationships is a factor in the present situation. The earlier pattern of administrative and supervisory relations with the teaching staff was one of paternalism and domination. As the teacher group has become better educated and has developed more professional initiative, this pattern has become both intolerable and inconsistent with the goal of obtaining effective results from the teaching force.

Currently, the profession is in the process of evolving what amounts to new concepts and understandings based upon democratic principles. The earlier chapters in this text have emphasized means and methods that contribute to this development. The previously expressed opinion on the part of the authors, that increasingly the relationships should be those of colleagues working together but fully recognizing the work

and responsibilities of each other, has a direct application to the relationship problem being discussed in this section.

The National Education Association *Code of Ethics* in its fourth principle emphasizes some of the issues involved in teacher-administrative and supervisory staff relationships.

. . . the teacher will—

1. Conduct professional business through the proper channels
2. Refrain from discussing confidential and official information with unauthorized persons
3. Apply for employment on the basis of competence only, and avoid asking for a specific position known to be filled by another teacher
4. Seek employment in a professional manner, avoiding such practices as the indiscriminate distribution of applications
5. Refuse to accept a position when the vacancy has been created through unprofessional activity or pending controversy over professional policy or the application of unjust personnel practices and procedures
6. Adhere to the conditions of a contract until service thereunder has been performed, the contract has been terminated by mutual consent, or the contract has otherwise been legally terminated
7. Give and expect due notice before a change of position is to be made
8. Be fair in all recommendations that are given concerning the work of other teachers
9. Accept no compensation from producers of instructional supplies when one's recommendations affect the local purchase or use of such teaching aids
10. Engage in no gainful employment, outside of his contract, where the employment affects adversely his professional status or impairs his standing with students, associates, and the community
11. Cooperate in the development of school policies and assume one's professional obligations thereby incurred
12. Accept one's obligation to the employing board for maintaining a professional level of service¹¹

In no phase of relationship that has been discussed should mutuality of interests and respect for each other be greater factors. Clearly, rela-

¹¹ National Education Association, *op. cit.*, pp. 7-8.

tionships on the part of the teachers will be determined largely by the leadership aspects of the administrative and supervisory service. Coöperation in maintaining sound relationships by the groups under discussion is clearly a two-way street.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHER MEMBERS OF THE SCHOOL STAFF

This set of relationships on the part of the teacher involves other teachers and members of the nonteaching staff. The teacher's ability to work with this group, as well as the other groups that have been discussed, is a significant factor in his success. Increasingly, teaching is a "team game" where staff works together in policy making and planning as well as execution. Unless relationships are maintained at a high professional level, the chances for success on the part of the individual and the group are materially reduced.

The fifth principle of the National Education Association *Code of Ethics* bears directly on this problem. In fulfilling the obligations of this principle,

. . . the teacher will—

1. Deal with other members of the profession in the same manner as he himself wishes to be treated
2. Stand by other teachers who have acted on his behalf and at his request
3. Speak constructively of other teachers, but report honestly to responsible persons in matters involving the welfare of students, the school system and the profession
4. Maintain active membership in professional organizations and, through participation, strive to attain the objectives that justify such organized groups
5. Seek to make professional growth continuous by such procedures as study, research, travel, conferences, and attendance at professional meetings
6. Make the teaching profession so attractive in ideals and practices that sincere and able young people will want to enter it¹²

Coöperation with the nonteaching personnel is important in fulfilling the teacher's responsibility. This involves respecting the services

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 8.

of others who do not teach. Understandings with the clerk, the school custodian, the school nurse, and even the school bus driver, are factors in the multirelationship job of the teacher. Such matters are becoming increasingly important in welfare and in maintaining coöperation in respect to salary issues, retirement, employment, and dismissal policies. These problems which come to a head in the functioning of organizations within a system, have their ultimate basis for solution in the human relationships of individuals working in the various jobs in the system.

THE FOURFOLD NATURE OF THE TEACHER'S JOB

The relationships discussed in the previous section must find expression in the actual job performance which the authors are projecting as a fourfold task. In practice, these tasks actually merge in the teaching responsibility, but for purposes of analysis they are being discussed as separate responsibilities.

During the past half-century, the shift in thinking concerning educational method has been from "techniques of presenting content" to "directing the learning of the child." This shift of emphasis is having a tremendous effect upon the nature of the teacher's job. The new emphasis is consistent with the authors' concept of the fourfold nature of the teacher's task. The four points that will be discussed are: (1) teaching, or the instructional process; (2) the guidance function; (3) the school and community citizenship responsibility; and (4) participation in policy making and planning in the school system.

THE TEACHING RESPONSIBILITY

The basic responsibility of the teacher is directing the learning of the child. This process will vary from school system to school system and will depend upon the educational philosophy of the teacher and the school system, and the learning situation in which the process takes place. While much of the teacher's academic and professional preparation is directed toward obtaining proficiency in this process, it is still a problem area and one in which perfection is sought but never wholly achieved, even by the master teacher. It is difficult to separate the teaching process from the guidance function, and it is not desirable in actual

practice. This is well illustrated in the following paragraph quoted from the Forty-Ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education:

The problem of instruction is now conceived to be essentially one of how to guide, direct, and evaluate the learning of children and youth so that the attainment of socially approved behavior patterns is assured. It is the task of the school, first, to assay society's needs and *to define the kinds of behavior* which children and youth must exemplify for effective living in the American democracy. Second, the school must *select the curriculum content and the activities* which will, as they are experienced by pupils, assure the attainment of the requisite standards of behavior. Third, the school must *skillfully organize instructional and activity programs* and *cause children to so interact* with them that the new behavior patterns will emerge. Fourth, the school must *evaluate this behavior* with respect to the school's original objectives and repattern its procedures if the behavior is found wanting.¹³

This statement, which expresses very well the authors' point of view, refers to the school itself, but of course involves the work of the individual teacher. It is in the process of meeting this group responsibility that the relationships previously discussed become so important.

The public schools currently are undergoing serious criticism concerning the effectiveness of the teaching process, particularly as it pertains to the so called "fundamentals." Such criticism has most frequently grown out of lack of understanding of the goals and philosophy of modern education and the manner in which the school is seeking to accomplish its purposes, which include more effective teaching of the "fundamentals."

This section of the text in no respect is attempting to duplicate texts in the fields of methodology of teaching. Only a general overall concept and definition of the teaching responsibility is being undertaken.

THE GUIDANCE FUNCTION

Many aspects of the learning situation depend upon something beyond the skill required to direct the *learning* of the child. The func-

tion of the teacher to create the "climate" in which learning can take place is an oversimplification of his guidance function. It involves understanding the process of human growth and development; the psychology of behavior; the mental health of pupils; the processes involved in recognizing and meeting the individual needs of children; and the ability to "team" with others including the parents, other teachers and administrators, specialists, and consultants available for special services.

Reference to the paragraph previously quoted from *Learning and Instruction*¹⁴ will indicate the close relationship between the instructional and guidance programs. In no greater respect is this section to be devoted to a study of guidance techniques than was the previous one on methodology. It should be recognized, however, that the guidance field is increasingly contributing to the improvement of the instructional process. The master teacher is one who merges the instruction and guidance functions in such a manner that the maximum learning efficiency is achieved.

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY CITIZENSHIP

Every teacher is a teacher of citizenship. This is one aspect of the teacher's job that develops whether by purpose or accident. It is nonetheless, one of his primary responsibilities, particularly in our democratic society. The relationship between the broad concept of citizenship and character is apparent. The teacher cannot, therefore, hold high standards of citizenship, and practice them himself as well as inspire others to do so, without developing basic character and idealism in his pupils. Frequently the teacher is called upon to emphasize these attributes in the face of local and national frustrations. This, in no sense, reduces their importance. Surveys record that parents prize character as an end of education. This being true, one of the best ways to achieve community support is through emphasizing, as a part of the teacher's job, citizenship and character education. Their relationship to the functions of instruction and guidance are so involved that, as previously stated, the master teacher merges all three into purposeful activities and experiences for his pupils. Frequently, the community is his laboratory for all three phases of his responsibility.

¹⁴ *Supra.*

Too frequently, particularly at the secondary school level, teachers of subjects other than those that bear directly upon citizenship ignore their responsibilities in this important field. Until *all* teachers recognize their responsibility as teachers and examples of citizenship and character, the effectiveness of the teaching profession will be less than it should be, and the degree of respect in which it is held by the public generally will be such as to reduce the public support of the profession and the schools.

This aspect of the teacher's job cannot be separated from his adult citizenship. By carrying his equal proportion of citizenship responsibilities in the community and by being well informed and courageous enough to support a constructive point of view, he will demonstrate good citizenship as well as teach it.

PARTICIPATION IN POLICY MAKING AND PLANNING

The fourth phase of the teacher's job is his responsibility for participation in policy making and planning in his profession, in the school system that employs him, and directly or indirectly in the state and national phases of public education.

This important phase of teacher responsibility has numerous aspects. Too frequently, it is considered as limited to participation in aspects of local school administration. A more complete analysis of this participation is contained in *Schools and Our Democratic Society*, which develops the relationship under the following headings:

1. Promoting public understanding of education
2. Developing local policies and programs
3. Influencing state educational policy¹⁵

The potential effect of more than a million teachers, operating as individuals and as an organized profession, upon educational policies and practices at the local, state, and national levels is beyond imagination. To date, this potential has been only fractionally obtained.

The process of participation in policy making and planning has been developed in Part I of this text. The emphasis in the text so far has been to encourage school administrators to use this process. The

two-way-street idea also previously expressed places equal responsibility upon the teacher to be an intelligent "participator." The effect of the growth of the participatory process upon the teacher is developed in the next section.

THE PARTICIPATORY PROCESS AND THE QUALIFICATIONS OF THE TEACHER

The responsibility on the part of the teacher to be an "intelligent participator" has created a new kind of demand for teacher qualifications. In contrast to the teacher whose education was confined to a few methods courses, and whose interests were limited wholly to the four walls of his own classroom, today's teachers are expected to participate intelligently, to be broadly educated, and to understand the underlying purposes of public education and its processes. A knowledge of group processes and ability to work with others are factors, too, that involve the participatory procedures. Awareness of educational issues at the local, state, and national levels that comes from wide reading, and membership and participation in professional organizations will contribute to the ability to be an intelligent participant.

The previously expressed point of view that the educational staff should work together as colleagues, each recognizing his responsibility, is very closely associated with this entire point of view. The relationship suggested is a challenge to both teachers and administrators in that a level of leadership on the part of each must be exceptionally high if they are to be productive of the best results.

ORGANIZATIONS AND THE TEACHER'S JOB

One of the characteristics of the past quarter-century in all professional, business, and labor groups has been that of developing organizations to further their interests and welfare. Although organizations for teachers and educators are older than the quarter-century referred to—the National Education Association, for example, having been founded in 1857—the extensive development that has characterized all groups has taken place in the educational profession in the relatively recent period. Two factors have caused this development: (1) the actual competition that has grown up through the general growth

of all groups and (2) the increased professional unity of the teaching profession.

The problem of this section of the text is not to discuss professional organizations generally, but to assess their effect upon the work of the teacher. A fair view of the situation indicates that both positive and negative effects upon the work of the teacher have been experienced. To determine these effects it is necessary to examine the goals of and purposes of teacher organization. In the main, organizations have been concerned with professional growth and welfare factors. Wherever the professional growth aspects have remained in the ascendancy, the organizations have in the main had positive effects on the work of the teacher. Wherever the welfare aspects have dominated the organization, frequently the teacher has taken a limited view of his responsibilities, with the resulting negative effect. It in nowise follows that a professional organization may not also have welfare goals. It is when these goals limit the activities of the teacher in respect to his energy and effort or total job concept that the negative effect will be noted. If teachers and other educational employees aspire to professional status, they will have to see to it that their organizations do not lose sight of the *general welfare* aspect of their work. It is difficult to conceive that a profession should deal in a work week of a certain number of hours or that the welfare of children should be adversely affected through an unusual division of labor dictated by an organization. On the other hand, to have as goals such principles as those previously quoted as the *Code of Ethics* of the National Education Association is to obtain a standard of service that will tully justify the application of the term "profession" to teaching and other educational positions in the public schools.

A further treatment of the broader aspects of the problems suggested in this section will be found in Chapter 14

COMMUNITY RESPONSIBILITIES AND THE TEACHER'S JOB

The fact that the teacher is a public employee, coupled with the nature of his job, creates a situation where certain community responsibilities on his part are inevitable. Distinguishing between those that are a part of his job and those that naturally accrue to him as an

adult citizen is another matter. This section is concerned with both, since on the one hand the teacher aspires to the rights of adult citizenship, and on the other the ethics of his profession make him responsible for a reasonable load of community activities.

The nature and extent of his activities have never been defined, and they vary from community to community and from individual to individual. Some communities demand wide activity on the part of their educational staff, while others consider the classroom job sufficient. In some cases, individuals take no part in community activities, while others go to such an extreme that their regular teaching assignment is neglected. Extremes in either case appear to be undesirable. On the other hand, participation to the extent of being familiar with the community in which one works, and to the end that the public may observe that he is carrying his share of the adult citizenship load, usually reacts favorably upon the individual and the school system.

One factor that must constantly be kept in view is that teaching and other educational jobs are demanding in themselves and that they use up much physical and mental energy. A community or school system is shortsighted which allows the total load of classroom and community duties to be so heavy that neither is done efficiently.

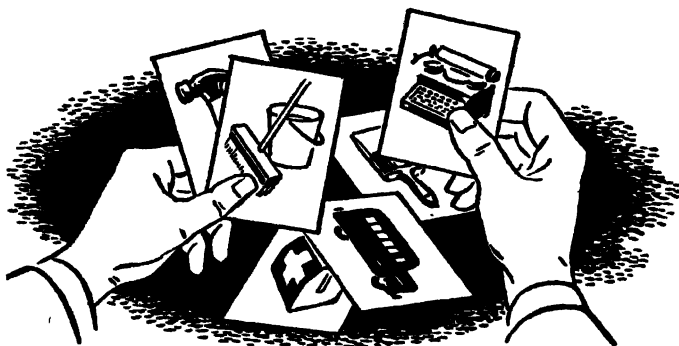
One of the community relationship factors that has not been fully met is the fact that the teacher's job is of nine to ten months duration. While it is true that college attendance and other activities frequently occupy the remainder of the year, the public is not fully aware of this use of the teacher's time. This problem is clearly associated with the matter of community responsibility and the teacher's job. Part of the solution may be a more extensive use of the teacher, upon a salaried basis, the year around.

FREEDOM TO TEACH AND THE TEACHER'S JOB

No examination of the work and responsibility of the teacher would be complete without some attention to the problem of his freedom to teach and learn. An examination of the broader phases of academic freedom will occur in Chapter 13. However, the teacher's responsibility to teach all the facts related to a significant issue that is under study is just as demanding upon him as the necessity to teach any other

fundamental in the school curriculum. To present in the classroom, at appropriate age levels, all matters important enough to be in controversy among the American people, is a part of his job and a double responsibility because he is both a citizen and a teacher. This in no wise infers that partisanship or sectarian advocacy should have any part in his teaching; rather, his responsibility is helping his pupils learn *how* to think and not *what* to think. One of the principal issues in our country today is the fear on the part of teachers of dealing with controversial issues. Partly this grows out of community attitudes which in some cases would militate against the teacher should he attempt to teach how to think about controversial issues, and on the other hand, it grows out of weaknesses on the part of the profession itself. Lack of professional background for handling the problem of teaching about controversial issues, and the matter of courage and willingness to take the job risks involved, complicate this entire issue.

The future of democratic education, and consequently the future of our democracy, depends upon the teacher's exercise of this aspect of his responsibility. Too long have we regarded the issue as being whether or not we should deal with controversial problems in the classroom. It must now be considered as part of the teacher's responsibility to do so.



CHAPTER 6

The Work and Responsibility of the Nonteaching Personnel

An examination of the educational literature reveals only limited and somewhat sketchy attention to the nearly one-half million public school employees who make up the group known as the nonteaching personnel. Because this force is outside the professional education group, it has received entirely too little consideration. The nonteaching personnel warrant careful attention for two reasons: first, because of the important service they render, and second, their importance in relation to the efficient functioning of the school organization itself. The space and attention that is being given to the group in this text is also admittedly inadequate. There is no area of administration where research is needed so badly.

THE FUNCTION AND CLASSIFICATION OF THE NONTeaching PERSONNEL

The function of the nonteaching personnel is, broadly stated, the performance of the services other than teaching, administration, and

supervision that are necessary to the operation and maintenance of the school system. Terminology in this area is somewhat conflicting and confusing. It is more understandable when broken down to the more specific services included in the general categories already mentioned. Five types of services will be used as the basis for the discussion which follows. While this organization is a defensible one, it will not always coincide with that used in certain school systems that may be affected by local school board policies, city-wide civil service regulations, and numerous licensing requirements that may affect employment. The five groups are: the clerical employees; the operating employees; the maintenance employees; the service employees; and a group of employees that have certain professional qualifications, but who do not teach or serve in an administrative or supervisory capacity.

THE JOB CLASSIFICATION PLAN IN RELATION TO THE NONTEACHING PERSONNEL

Increasingly, the public school administrators are recognizing the importance of developing a sound base for the administration of the nonteaching personnel. A job classification system, in school systems employing a number of personnel in the nonteaching field, seems to offer the best promise of bringing order into a personnel field that has been characterized by considerable chaos. The following statement, relating to the job classification approach to the problem of school administration, suggests the general nature of the suggested plan.

A complete classification of non-teaching positions, which indicates duties and qualifications for each class of positions should be made and kept up to date. Such a plan involves:

- a. A personnel classification which includes all non-teaching personnel has been authorized by the board of education
- b. Gradation of positions within each general type of service is such as to offer a basis for promotion
- c. The general nature of the duties expected of each class of positions is defined in the classifications
- d. Minimum educational and personal qualifications and special training requirements for appointments to each class of positions are stated
- e. Provision is made for periodic reviews of the classification plan and for reclassification of positions

- f. The relationship of temporary workers and pupil assistants to the classified service is clearly defined¹

These points suggest that a classification plan is a systematic arrangement of things into groups or categories based upon some definite scheme. A careful study of the various jobs is necessary to such a classification. The United States Civil Service Commission and many of the larger businesses and industries have made great progress in this field and have much to offer the student of school administration as he studies his local problem. The United States Employment Service has prepared a *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*² that will be helpful in classifying clerical positions.

The job classification plan is a *tool* in personnel administration and is of no importance unless it serves as a practical instrument to be used to an advantage to the school system and its employees.

The principal uses of a job classification plan are:

1. Determines a uniform job terminology
2. Becomes a basis for recruiting and selecting new employees
3. Sets up promotion and transfer procedures
4. Functions in evaluation and in-service training programs
5. Becomes the basis for salary schedule considerations
6. Contributes to the organization through classification of relationships
7. Makes it possible to provide orderly accounting and budgeting
8. Promotes good employee relations and efficiency

The use of the job classification technique is a rather specialized one, and the student is advised to pursue its implications quite thoroughly, and to secure specialized and experienced help if a considerable task of planning for and carrying out a classification plan is anticipated. The emphasis in this text is that job classification and job description procedures should be used. Numerous references in the bibliography, especially the studies by Roelfs, cover more specifically

the various steps and details involved in incorporating such a plan into the personnel program of a school system.

The legal bases for classifying the nonteaching personnel vary widely in the various school districts of the United States. Generally, the board of education policy is the principal element of control. In the larger cities, the legal controls are especially varied. In a survey of cities over 200,000 in population in the United States, Roelfs found the following distribution of controls:

Board of education policy	24 systems
State constitution or general statutes	7 systems
City charter or municipal ordinance	4 systems
State law and city charter	12 systems
Special state legislation	1 system
Federal civil service	1 system ³

This variation suggests that a study of the controls as they affect a given situation is the point of beginning in setting up a job classification plan. It may develop that these controls have different application to the various types of nonteaching personnel. Such basic information should be available to the school administrator as he considers the problem.

In the administration of the nonteaching personnel there are five areas or aspects to be considered. They are: (1) the services to be performed; (2) the process of selection, which also involves the qualifications; (3) the classification and job descriptions; (4) in-service training; and (5) matters of salary, working hours, vacation, and other welfare considerations. Because the various groups in the nonteaching personnel vary greatly in education, specialized training, experience, organization, and general interests, it will be necessary to discuss the first four areas set out earlier in this chapter as they apply to each. The welfare factors such as insurance, sick leave, and retirement will be covered in a single discussion in Chapter 11, since they usually apply in the same fashion to all employees, especially nonteaching ones.

THE CLERICAL PERSONNEL

The size of the staff for clerical services, like that of the administrative and supervisory staff, varies with the size of the school system. Typically, it ranges from the situation in the small school system, where one clerk or secretary may do all the clerical services that are provided, to an elaborately organized staff in the large city school system. There is no rule of thumb, although there has been some research not entirely conclusive, by which the size of the clerical staff can be determined in relation to school enrollment. Some school systems provide adequately for clerical assistance, on the theory that it frees the professional personnel for more constructive services. This point of view—that clerical services should be used for routine tasks so that the educational staff will be free to do a better professional job—seems sound.

Some school systems, particularly the great mass of small and rural schools, provide almost no clerical services for the teaching and supervisory staff and only very limited help to the general administrator. Even in some very large and apparently well-organized systems, the clerical load falls heavily upon the principals of schools and the teaching staff. This grows out of the fact that the burden of clerical work has been allowed to develop without proper examination of the function it serves. It indicates a lack of clearly defined policies relative to clerical services and to the duties of the teaching and supervisory personnel. A check of the size of clerical staff in the medium-to-large school systems indicates that this group of employees make up from 7 to 10 percent of the total staff.

CLASSIFICATION AND ORGANIZATION

No two school systems have exactly the same classification plan for clerical employees. Like the administrative function, the clerical one exists in every school system, no matter how many employees there are or who performs the services. It is largely a matter of degree and amount, depending upon the size of the organization and the willingness of those in charge to delegate clerical functions to clerical employees.

The following organization is suggested, with the view of listing the

wide variety of services to be performed. Only in a fairly large school system would there be such specialization; at the other extreme, it is possible that only a few persons would carry out most of the activities that are listed. It is recognized that there are other miscellaneous employees in some school systems, such as internal auditors, bookkeepers, and purchasing assistants, who have some clerical functions but perform tasks not essentially clerical. These have been consciously omitted from this list, and will be treated later in the chapter.

TYPES OF CLERICAL SERVICE

1. Secretarial
 - A. Secretaries with assignments to a specific person or officer
 - B. Secretaries with a more general assignment
 - C. General stenographic help
2. Clerical—general
 - A. Receptionists
 - B. Typists and transcribers
 - C. File clerks
 - D. General office clerks in principal's office
3. Clerical—special
 - A. Attendance clerks
 - B. Record clerks
 - C. Receiving and paying clerks
 - D. Inventory clerks
4. Machine operators
 - A. General business machines
 - B. I.B.M.
 - C. Intercommunication system and telephone
 - D. Duplicators

A classification system of this type has several functions. It permits specific job specialization and description as a basis of employment, types of in-service training fitted to needs, an opportunity to fit salaries to responsibilities, a system allowing for promotions, and services fitted to the widely varying needs of the school system.

DETERMINING THE SERVICES OF CLERICAL PERSONNEL

In general, the size of the school system and the point of view of the employing officers will largely determine the services performed

by clerical personnel. If the school system is large enough to need a variety of services, and if it is believed that the professional staff and other more highly paid and specialized personnel should be relieved, as far as possible, from details to carry out their tasks at a high level, the needs for the clerical staff will be apparent. Their services will need to be determined, however, with considerable care. Clerical services should be clearly distinguished from those that the professional staff performs, and their services should be within their scope of assignment and qualifications.

It is important, too, to have some adequate basis for assignments. Given the opportunity, almost every administrative and supervisory staff member will legitimately seek secretarial help. In some cases, individual assignments are not justified, and some plan to use dictating machines and stenographic pools will save considerable money and improve efficiency. Differences of opinion exist even among specialists in secretarial and clerical management on this issue. Since it is associated with morale factors, the final plan should be used only after careful study and policy determination.

The services of an office manager who is skilled at determining work loads, judging efficiency, directing simple types of in-service training, and organizing the clerical staff will pay big dividends in an organization of a size that will justify it. Generally speaking, professionally trained personnel in education do not do an outstanding job in managing clerical personnel. If the employment in a given office or building exceeds ten to twelve persons, one person might very well be assigned to give part or all of his time to the office-management responsibility. The problem of dual supervision may develop if such a plan is used. Policy will need to be clearly established as to the responsibility of the office manager and his relationship to the professional personnel using the clerical staff. School systems with highly specialized departments of vocational training or commercial education may be able to afford the administrator specialized help and advice in this area. Later on, the experience of this group will be emphasized in relation to in-service training.

The outline of types of clerical service suggest the range of activities in the clerical services. It would be useless to try to describe each, since

it would not be applicable from one system to another. A method of job descriptions in a particular school system will be suggested in a later section, as a means of determining what each clerical worker should do. It is not meant to be inferred that the clerical services are jobs that can be exactly prescribed, and that they require persons with only routine skills but little imagination and initiative. Such is not the case. Particularly, in much of the secretarial work, in meeting the public, and in semiprofessional tasks, one finds some of the most vital jobs in the entire school system—fully as important as the professional ones. Key clerical persons in the school system are especially those who serve in a secretarial capacity to the superintendent, his immediate assistants, and as secretary-clerks to principals of buildings. From the standpoint of both efficiency of operation and public relations, these positions should be filled with the greatest care, and the jobs should be classified so that they can be salaried to attract and hold outstanding personnel.

SELECTION AND QUALIFICATIONS

The employment of all personnel in the school system should be done with equal care. The usual process of employment is through some central office in the school system. It may be the superintendent's office or that of one of his assistants in charge of personnel. Certain basic personal data should be accumulated about each prospect for employment—his skills, his background of education and work experience, and any other data, including adequate references collected by the school system itself, that bear upon his fitness for employment.

Usually the school system will have determined certain basic skills which are desired and have specific policies against which the applicant may be checked. Such factors as age, experience, sex, health, and morals will serve as a further basis of evaluation, and will permit final selection upon the basis of specific qualifications for the job to be filled. The importance of having data already collected upon applicants and prospects for positions is apparent, since the process that has been suggested is time-consuming and frequently jobs need to be filled promptly.

One of the principal bases for employment is the interview with the

prospective employee. The interview can best be conducted after the data concerning the applicant has been collected. The interview may be with one or more persons concerned with the employment. As far as possible, it should be with some central employee of the school system to assure some uniformity in employment practice, and by the professional employee to whom the person would be assigned, if employed. For example, the secretary-clerk in the principal's office should be interviewed by the superintendent, or his assistant, and the principal in whose building the vacancy exists. Generally, this practice will improve morale and secure better service.

Certain characteristics seem unusually important in hiring clerical personnel for the school. Because of their relationship to children and the public generally, as well as to the professional personnel, their general educational level, personality, character, health, and ability to work with people, in addition to their skills, need to be considered.

It is important that the superintendent should impress the board of education with the importance of employment in this area and should indicate the care and consideration that has gone into the recommendations for filling clerical positions. Such a procedure will aid in keeping the employment on a high level, where qualifications and the job to be filled are matters of prime consideration.

JOB DESCRIPTION AND CLASSIFICATION

In perhaps no other area of school employment can job descriptions and a classification plan be developed so extensively and successfully. It is possible, actually, to describe the functions to be performed in most of the clerical positions and to determine the requisite skills that are necessary to fulfill them. That being the case, it follows that this is a logical procedure to use, in both employment and classification. Matters of pay and promotion can be readily associated with such a procedure.

In spite of the presence of departments of business education and vocational training in school systems, they have been slow to adopt this procedure. In school situations where the state laws require a civil service system covering this area of employment, such procedures are

more common. Figure 10 gives a typical job description for a clerical position.

The *types of clerical service* described earlier in the chapter suggest a means of classifying clerical employees. In systems of some size, such a procedure is inevitable if problems of promotion, salary, and tenure

SAMPLE CLASS SPECIFICATION

**Position Classification Plan For Noncertificated Employees of the City Board of Education
Birmingham, Alabama**

CLERK REGISTRAR (SECONDARY) (Schedule H)

DEFINITION

This work consists of important clerical work in the office of a Head Registrar in one of the city high schools. Incumbents of positions in this class are usually known as Assistant Registrars.

EXAMPLE OF WORK PERFORMED

Makes and sends out accurate transcripts of credits of high school graduates
Copies grades on permanent record forms
Makes enrollment reports to Attendance Department
Sells tickets to student activity events and keeps careful records of all sales
Transmits messages from Principal to classrooms
Compiles reports for Board of Education
May do some stenographic work for Principal
May act as Cashier in the lunchroom
Collects laboratory and other fees
Operates a number of standard office machines
Performs numerous other important clerical tasks as assigned

REQUIRED KNOWLEDGES, SKILLS, AND ABILITIES

Working knowledge of modern office appliances and equipment
Working knowledge of office methods, policies, and procedures
Ability to carry out special and general assignments requiring organization of material and development of procedures without direct supervision
Ability to work independently on difficult or complex clerical tasks

DESIRABLE TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE

At least two years of college training and two years of progressively responsible office work Or an equivalent of training and experience

FIGURE 10.

are to be handled adequately. Figure 11 gives a classification plan and salary schedule that is in use in a school system that has given considerable study to this problem. It is by no means the only way that such personnel can be classified, but it is a result of considerable experience and study by those in charge of personnel. The participatory

SALARY SCHEDULE FOR CLERKS AND SECRETARIES
Denver Public Schools,

A. Training

The minimum training required for appointment as a clerk or secretary shall be a high school diploma.

B. Recognition of Experience

Only experience gained within six years preceding time of employment shall be recognized.

C. Salaries

1. Beginning salaries for all clerks and secretaries shall be in accordance with the following schedule:

Appoved Experience	High School	Training	
		One Year Business College	College Degree
None	\$2280	\$2400	\$2520
1 or 2 years	2400	2520	2640
3 or 4 years	2520	2640	2760
5 or more years	2640	2760	2880

2. The minimum and maximum salaries of clerical personnel under the direction of the superintendent shall be in accordance with the following schedule:

	Minimum Salary	Maximum Salary	Annual Increment
Clerk	(\$2280 to \$2880) depending on education and experience	\$3300	\$180
Senior clerk and junior high school treasurer		3540	180
Senior high school treasurer		4020	180
Secretary		4020	180
Group II		4260	180
Group I			
Executive Secretary			
Group II	\$3480	4500	180
Group I	3480	4740	180
Part-time or supply employees	\$1.00 an hour	\$1.75 an hour	\$0.05 an hour

3. The minimum and maximum salaries of personnel under the direction of the secretary-treasurer of the District shall be in accordance with the following schedule:

	Minimum Salary	Maximum Salary	Annual Increment
Executive Secretary (Group II)	\$3480	\$4500	\$180
Secretary			
Group II	2280	4020	180
Group I	2280	4260	180
Accountant			
Group II	3475	5275	225
Group I	4500	6075	225
Bookkeeper			
Group II	2640	3780	180
Group I	3360	4260	180
Timekeeper	4500	6075	225
Assistant timekeeper	2400	3780	180
Business machine operator	2640	3780	180
Senior clerk	2280	3540	180
Clerk	2280	3300	180
Messenger and office boy	1680	2340	180
Part-time employees	\$0.85 an hour	\$1.60 an hour	\$0.80 an hour

4. Whenever a member of the clerical staff is advanced to a position of higher salary status, he shall receive a special increment of \$180 at the time of assuming his new responsibilities.

FIGURE 11.

process, previously stressed and applied to the professional personnel, is equally applicable to the clerical field, and the formation of employee committees to work on problems of job description and classification will aid materially in this area. Morale factors are equally important in this field of employment, and every consideration to improve them should be employed.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Since the school system is in the business of education, it seems only reasonable that it should give considerable attention to this area. In-service training for the clerical personnel employed by the school system is particularly important since the school systems generally find difficulty in competing with business and industry for top-level clerical personnel. This results frequently in making it necessary to employ personnel who are in need of either additional or refresher training. Then, too, the clerical services in the school require a particular type of skills or an adaptation of them to the school jobs, and because of this, in-service training is particularly necessary.

Such training should involve improvement in skills, special training in respect to the job to be done, and general familiarity with the practices and policies of the school system. A knowledge of the general overall operations of the system is also desirable, since it makes relationships and communication within the system more meaningful to employees.

Previous reference has been made to the use of business and vocational education departments as a means of in-service education for this group of employees. Not only is such an approach feasible and economical for the school system, but it also may permit a development of those departments that will make them more useful to the community generally.

The principal's secretary-clerk has probably the best example of a multifunction job, where such in-service training would be helpful. Regardless of how well trained a person is upon being hired, there are many phases of the particular job with which he will have had little or no contact. If there are adequate job descriptions of such jobs, they form the basis for in-service training.

By using the work of the principal's secretary-clerk as a further example and listing a few of the jobs connected with this assignment, the place of in-service training in such a situation will become clearer to the reader.

SUGGESTED LIST OF DUTIES OF THE PRINCIPAL'S SECRETARY-CLERK

- Receptionist
- Telephoning
- Stenographic tasks
- Record keeping
- Making reports
- Marking standardized tests
- Working with children
- Working with teachers
- Meeting parents and citizens in absence of principal
- Receiving and storing supplies
- Keeping inventories
- Pay roll responsibilities
- First aid and emergency action

Somewhere within the school system there should be someone who has responsibility for and who could give instruction and assistance to the clerk in each of these areas. The school system could well afford to pay clerks and others following their employment and prior to assignment for the limited periods that are necessary to improve their skills in these several areas. Not only is it a question of new personnel, but those who have been employed can have their efficiency increased by periodic training. Some school systems have found it desirable to set up regular and periodic sessions within the work week to accomplish this purpose.

SALARIES AND SALARY SCHEDULES FOR THE CLERICAL PERSONNEL

In determining the pay of clerical personnel, many factors need to be considered. The hours per day, days per week, and number of weeks per year are considerations. If the person is employed twelve months per year, the vacation period is also a factor. The general working conditions, including load, are matters that are also considered by both employer and employee.

The matter of competition is especially strong in the clerical field. While the public school system is usually the only employer of teachers in the community, this is not true with clerical personnel, since business and industry are usually in a better position to attract clerical personnel than is the school system. This grows out of the fact that business and industry are more responsive to economic changes than is the school system, which works from a budget determined twelve to eighteen months before the funds are actually collected.

The school system must, therefore, consider, in addition to a reasonably adequate salary schedule, many other factors to attract and hold personnel. To a degree, the salary schedule for clerical workers in a school system must be competitive, but it may, as a rule, be only locally competitive, in contrast to the state-wide and even national aspects of the competition for teachers. Because of the fact that it must be only locally competitive, the salary schedule for any local school system will have only general value to the reader. Figure 11 shows how one good school system has handled this problem. Since schedule is geared to the classification plan, it shows the various salary levels at different levels of experience and grade of position.

The experience factor is usually not as important in a salary schedule for clerical personnel as it is for the educational group. This is partly because the maximums are less, and partly because the effect of experience, after the person has learned his job, is not so cumulative. Usually, the clerical worker expects to benefit by promotions from one classification to another and thus increase the period over which he may receive increments for experience. This promotion factor is also a substitute for paying the increments for advanced educational qualifications, as in the case of teachers. It is apparent, then, that different criteria are involved in the development of salary schedules for clerical personnel than for the educational group.

Business and industry, as larger-scale employers of clerical personnel than the public schools, have much to offer the student who wishes to study personnel methods as applied particularly to the clerical personnel. It must be recognized, however, that the practices of business and industry have to be adapted to the educational function that the clerical personnel performs in the public school system. In competing

with business and industry, school systems have found that working conditions, length of work day and work week, vacations, job security, retirement plans, and insurance protection are valuable factors. Personnel officers for schools should capitalize upon these as much as possible in building their clerical personnel.

One other factor should not be overlooked—many clerical employees like the atmosphere and aspect of service found in the school system. The authors personally know of many cases where clerical staff remains in school jobs because of this factor, when they could profit financially by going elsewhere. Such interest and consideration for the work that they are doing make the clerical personnel worthy of many considerations, including their adequate participation in organized aspects of policy making and planning in the school system.

ORGANIZATION FOR SCHOOL SECRETARIES

One of the interesting developments in this area of personnel has been the initiation of an organization of school secretaries. Affiliated with the National Education Association as a department, this group, called The National Association of School Secretaries, has made great progress in professionalizing their job. The organization, made up especially of secretaries to superintendents, but including many others in school clerical work, is making a unique contribution. *The Secretary*, their national publication, is doing much to keep this group informed of best practices, and to encourage further professional development. Their consideration of matters of ethics and professional standards is a mark of their progress. Each year, they hold a summer institute on a national basis, where they study good practices and exchange ideas on successful procedures. One of the best suggestions to the school administrator is to encourage affiliation by key members of his clerical staff with this growing organization.

THE OPERATIONAL PERSONNEL

The public school operational personnel is that body of nonteaching employees whose responsibility is to keep the school plant and other auxiliary operating services, such as pupil transportation and delivery

services, functioning so that the educational purpose of the schools may be achieved.

The operating function is an extremely important one, since the health and safety, as well as the comfort of the pupils and educational staff, are in the hands of this group of employees. The operating personnel have charge of physical property, some of which is powered by steam and other pressure units, and this property often constitutes the community's most valuable physical asset. To a very considerable extent, the quality of education is determined by the qualities of the several aspects of operational service.

The operation of a complicated school plant, whether a single building or numerous ones, and its auxiliary services requires personnel with a variety of skills, sound judgment, energy, willingness to work, and trustworthiness of a high degree. The standards of house-keeping practiced by this group go far in setting the general school pattern and perhaps even the neighborhood or community pattern. The variety of services exercised by this group of school employees can best be illustrated by listing the common types of employees in this group.

TYPES OF OPERATIONAL PERSONNEL

1. Engineers
2. Firemen
3. Engineer-Firemen
4. Custodian-Engineer
5. Custodian-Fireman
6. Custodians
7. Watchmen
8. Truck drivers and delivery personnel
9. Sweepers
10. Special cleaning or other help; window cleaners; trash, ash and snow removers, etc.
11. School bus drivers
12. Grounds workers
13. Elevator operators
14. Matrons

This listing of operational personnel is designed to be more exhaustive than typical of any school district's pattern. Typical classification plans will be presented later. No attempt is made in this list to introduce the gradations or combinations that are possible within each general classification. This relationship will be developed in the sections on classification and job description.

It is worth noting that the number and nature of this group of employees will vary widely with the size and organization of the school system, in the same manner as the size of the administrative and supervisory staff or the clerical personnel to which we have referred. The variations may be from the part-time employee who does little more than "sweep out" a small building to complicated organizations found in large city systems. Reference to Table 2, page 10, will indicate the relationship of this group to the total personnel employed and further reference to Table 3, page 11, shows its relationship to the total employee personnel in certain public school systems. A comparison of the operating employee group with the total number of employees in medium-to-large school systems indicates that the group comprises from 8 to 15 percent of the total.

The number varies with school systems because of the number of hours per day and week the employees work, the standards and efficiency of the staff, the extent to which operating employees also do maintenance work, and, to a degree, the size and type of school plant the system maintains. The extent to which the school buildings are open for general community use is a large factor in determining the number of operating employees.

In the field of transportation, the number of workers is greatly affected by the distance pupils live from the schools they attend. Therefore, rural schools have a disproportionately large group of operating employees because of their transportation problem. The factor of part-time employment is an important one in this field; the transportation workers are largely of this group.

SELECTION AND QUALIFICATION

The point has previously been emphasized that *all* employment of personnel for use in the public school staff should be done with equal

care. A system of centralized control through the superintendent's office or that of one of his assistants is necessary to establish the desirable degree of uniformity and the meeting of general policy requirements. The use of methods suggested in previous sections relative to the accumulation of data, references, and skill qualifications are equally applicable to this phase of public school personnel employment. The points made so far in respect to the selection of operating employees cannot be too strongly stressed. Too frequently this area of employment is not sufficiently controlled by the superintendent or his immediate representative. This leads to a type of nonprofessional selection, sometimes dominated by personal and political pressures, that yields a group of employees unfitted for the responsibilities that they bear.

In addition to the usual requirements for employment, special attention should be given in the operational group to health, sobriety, vigor, morals, and ability to work with people. The special skills that are required should be carefully examined, since life and property are at stake in addition to the health, safety, and comfort of the pupils and educational personnel.

Many persons in the list of operating employees require special certificates or licenses for the particular skills that are involved. Some of these are engineers, firemen, bus drivers, elevator operators, and, in some instances, general custodians. There will be variations in different communities and states. This means that these persons must meet the special city or state requirements *in addition* to the school system's regulations. School officials who do hiring should be extremely diligent about observing such local and state regulations, since failure to adhere to them is frequently subject to heavy penalty, and even more important, might make such officials liable under laws of negligence should an accident occur.

As stated earlier in the chapter, only about one-half of the large city school systems have complete control of employment in this field. The existence of divided authority further complicates the personnel problem in this area. Many school systems are required to obtain all their employees in the operational field from civil service lists. This suggests that qualifications under local civil service should insure the

special requirements of law having been met, but the final responsibility, if not full legal authority, is in the hands of school district officials and it should be exercised with greatest care.

To reemphasize the importance of operational personnel, the following quotation has been selected concerning the school custodian, or janitor, who is the most common of the operational employees having to do with school buildings.

The school custodian is an educator. Although the tools of his trade are somewhat different from those of the teachers, nevertheless the skill with which the custodian carries out his part in the education of children determines to a considerable extent how good the child's education can be.

The custodian is the key person in making schools safe, sanitary, and healthful places for boys and girls. In addition, the efficiency and economy with which public funds are spent to operate school buildings depends in large measure on how well the custodian knows his job and the conditions under which he works.⁴

A more specific statement concerning qualifications is contained in the program developed by the Milwaukee schools.

The Milwaukee personnel program bases the rating of custodial personnel on the following: intelligence, true-false examination, essay test, age, height, weight, general health, physical condition, marital status, parental status, education, special experience, general experience, ability to speak English, ability to write legibly, voice, personal cleanliness, neatness of dress, courtesy, energy or drive, personal habits and general impression.⁵

One of the best statements on custodian and engineer qualifications is found in the regulations of the Minneapolis Public Schools. Their statement follows:

SECTION I. JANITORIAL QUALIFICATIONS

No person shall be eligible for appointment on the janitorial-engineering force of the Minneapolis Public Schools unless he or she

- a. Shall be able-bodied and of good character
- b. Shall be able to read, write, and speak the English language

- c. Shall be clean and neat in appearance
- d. Shall not be addicted to the use of intoxicating liquors or tobacco
- e. Shall be qualified to perform in a reasonably proficient manner the duties of the position he or she may be employed to fill
- f. Shall not be under the age of twenty-one years nor over the age of forty-five years
- g. Shall be a citizen of the United States, and a resident of Minneapolis
- h. Shall agree to devote his or her entire time within the hours of his or her employment to the discharge of the duties assigned to him or her

SECTION II. SPECIAL QUALIFICATIONS

All male applicants for positions in the engineering division of the janitorial-engineering service must possess the following qualifications:

- a. Must have sufficient knowledge and experience in the use, operating, and care of the mechanical equipment used for the heating, ventilating, lighting and operation of a school building to insure the board of education against damage to school property arising from the use or misuse by him of such mechanical equipment
- b. Must hold either a chief engineer's license, or a first-class engineer's license for handling steam boilers and engines in accordance with requirements of a position held and as determined by the rules of the State Boiler Inspector's Department
- c. Must be reasonably proficient in the use of fuel and simple mechanical tools⁶

This type of policy statement adopted by a board of education would give direction to selection and appointment programs, and the kind of support needed by a school administrator to carry out his responsibilities.

Membership in Unions and the Operational Personnel. One of the special problems in the employment and personnel management of operational employees of public school systems is the fact that all or some of the groups may be unionized. In no respect does this relationship change the sound *principles* of personnel administration, but certain *practices* may vary where union groups exist.

In the first place, the school district must determine its legal rela-

tionship to such a situation. Some states make it illegal for school boards to deal with unions as such, and in others the relationships have been legalized. If the school district can deal through unions, this may affect the whole matter of selection, retention, personnel relations, and the manner of determining salary and other welfare matters. It may complicate the personnel administrative problem, as numerous separate unions may be involved in the list of operational employees previously outlined. This situation has led both employees and employers, in the case of the school district, to consider seriously the encouragement of one union organization inclusive of the several operational employees, and this practice is in effect in some large cities.

It is the opinion of the authors that local community mores should determine the relationship that should exist in this area and that both employers and employees have a responsibility to effect a working arrangement that will be fair to all parties, considering especially the public, whom the schools are to serve.

CLASSIFICATIONS AND JOB DESCRIPTIONS

In a school system of any appreciable size, in theory at least, whenever the number of operational employees exceeds one, a system of classification and job descriptions is desirable. Actually, of course, this is a way of indicating that the classification of employees and the fixing of their responsibilities is a sound personnel procedure. Where the number of employees is small, it may mean only a clear definition of duties. No two school systems have the same classification plan for operational employees. Figure 12 shows a relatively simple plan followed by a fairly large city school system. It exists in a situation where the board of education has full control of employment and such classifications as exist. Typically, such situations have less complicated plans than do those where local civil service boards deal with all municipal employees.

Two typical job descriptions of the custodian and the school bus driver are given in Figures 13 and 14. The factors of duties, type of work performed, qualifications—including the special skills that are required—lines of promotion, and supervision involved appear in most job descriptions.

In the job descriptions that are used in this chapter the authors have

CLASSIFICATIONS OF OPERATIONAL EMPLOYEES

Denver Public Schools

Custodians

Elementary Schools, Administration Building and Storehouse

Group I

Group II

Group III

Junior High Schools

Group I

Group II

Senior High Schools and Emily Griffith Opportunity School

Assistant Custodians

Senior High School

Junior High School

Elementary School

Foremen

Foreman assistants

Custodian helpers and firemen

Matrons

Laborers

Truck Drivers

Helpers on truck

Bus drivers—full time

Sweeper boys

Transportation Manager

Storehouse Foreman

Stores Ledger Head

Shipping Clerk

Receiving Clerk

Counter Clerk

FIGURE 12.

SAMPLE CLASS SPECIFICATION

City Civil Service

Richmond, Virginia

TITLE: Custodian (Schools)

DUTIES

Under supervision, has charge of the work of a small group of employees engaged in cleaning, sweeping school buildings and adjacent area, and in heating a small school; personally performs such work; and does related work as required.

EXAMPLES

Assigns and supervises the work of assistants such as firemen, janitors and maids; unlocks and locks school buildings; patrols school grounds and buildings for trespassers or intruders to protect property of school staff, pupils and other lawful users of school facilities; reports damage to or loss of property and suggests requirements for repair or replacement; monitors grounds, rooms, halls, and lavatories for safety and the conduct of the children as required by principal; requisitions necessary supplies for cleaning and heating services; works with and participates in work of assistants as required.

DESIRABLE QUALIFICATIONS

Common school graduation and one year of successful experience in custodial work; knowledge of operation of heating plants; supervisory ability; pleasing personality, neatness of work; tact; strength.

FIGURE 13.

**SAMPLE CLASS SPECIFICATION
POSITION CLASSIFICATION PLAN
Board of Education
Newark, New Jersey**

TITLE: Senior Bus Operator

DEFINITION

Performs responsible work in the supervision of Bus Operators, and does related work as assigned.

DISTINGUISHING CHARACTERISTICS

A Senior Bus Operator is responsible both for participating in the schedule of runs of a group of Bus Operators and for operating a school bus on an assigned route. Employee must adjust runs because of absences or unusual weather conditions to see all scheduled runs are covered. General schedules of runs are set by an administrative superior and work is reviewed for operating results.

EXAMPLES OF WORK

Assigns Bus Operators to runs; checks time out and time in; dispatches emergency runs; operates bus on scheduled run; cares for safety of and assists handicapped children on route; supervises and participates in servicing of buses with oil, gas, water, lubricants; washes body and windows, sweeps interior; checks tires, maintains proper tire inflation; changes tires, makes emergency repairs.

QUALIFICATIONS

Education at a level represented by successful completion of eighth grade.

Experience in operating medium sized vehicle such as school bus and some experience in supervision

Possession of a license to operate a motor vehicle in New Jersey

Desirable

Working knowledge of operation and maintenance of medium weight motor vehicle

Working knowledge of traffic rules and of geography of the Newark area

Skill in safe operation of a motor vehicle

Ability to assign and supervise work of subordinate Bus Operators

Ability to keep simple records

Ability to follow written and oral instructions

FIGURE 14.

chosen samples from a variety of sources. Because such descriptions are frequently revised, the reader is urged to consider them only as samples and to recognize that the development of descriptions for each specific situation is necessary.

The Denver Public Schools have carefully prepared job descriptions for all of their custodial jobs in the school system. One of these descriptions has been selected since it typifies a job so frequently found in the public schools, namely one where a wide variety of duties is involved. It is included here as Figure 15.

SAMPLE JOB CLASSIFICATION

Denver Public Schools

Denver, Colorado

TITLE: Custodian Helper-Fireman

DUTIES

Under immediate direction, a Custodian Helper-Fireman assists in the cleaning, operation, and routine maintenance of one of the buildings of the Denver Public Schools. He performs a variety of custodial duties in conformance with detailed assignments or an established order of work.

EXAMPLES OF WORK

Sweeps, mops, scrubs and polishes floors. Washes windows, doors, woodwork, and walls; dusts office and school equipment and other fixtures; maintains toilets, lavatories, and shower rooms in proper sanitary conditions; replenishes lavatory and toilet supplies; cleans and washes blackboards, chalk trays, and cleans erasers; takes his turn at firing a low pressure heating plant; cleans and fills ink wells; locks and unlocks school doors; gathers and disposes of rubbish, trash, and wastepaper, moves supplies, furniture, and other equipment as necessary; replaces burned-out electric lamps with new ones; raises and lowers flag according to official regulations; closes windows and transoms; assists the custodian in making minor repairs to building and equipment; cares for surrounding grounds; assists in care of heating, ventilating, plumbing, and novelty equipment; trims, irrigates, and cares for lawns and shrubbery; keeps grounds clean and orderly; removes snow and debris from walks; and performs related work as required.

SUPERVISION RECEIVED

Custodian Helper-Fireman is under the general supervision of the Supervisor of Custodians and under the immediate supervision of a Custodian or an Assistant Custodian.

SUPERVISION EXERCISED

A Custodian Helper-Fireman does not ordinarily exercise any supervision but an experienced helper sometimes may serve as a working foreman over a small number of other Custodian Helpers and Sweeper Boys.

QUALIFICATIONS

Education: Education equivalent to eighth grade graduation

Experience: No previous custodial experience required

Knowledge: No special custodial knowledge required

Skills: Ability to understand and follow simple oral and written instructions; ability to learn simple cleaning methods and routines; ability to get along well with children and adolescents; and ability to deal courteously and tactfully with school personnel and the public and work harmoniously with fellow employees.

Personal: Sufficient mechanical aptitude and interest in custodial work to acquire knowledge to promote to higher custodial positions; willingness to learn; possession of qualities of personal cleanliness, neatness, reliability, alertness, and emotional stability; and a pleasant disposition.

Physical: Pass a physical examination consistent with duties; and possess sufficient physical strength to do manual cleaning and related labor, to work continuous hours while standing, and to lift moderately heavy loads.

USUAL LINES OF PROMOTION

From: None (Occasionally Sweeper Boy)

To: Custodian, Group I or Group II Elementary School

FIGURE 15.

In Akron, Ohio, the public schools, using a plan developed by the Municipal Civil Service Commission, combine the Maintenance and Custodial Services in nine series as follows:

CARPENTRY SERIES

Rough Carpenter
Carpenter
Carpentry Foreman

COOK'S SERIES

School Cook
Senior School Cook

CUSTODIAL SERIES

Janitress
Assistant Custodian
Custodian
Supervising Custodian

ELECTRICAL SERIES

Electrician
Electrician Foreman

UTILITY SERIES

Utility Man
Lawn Maintenance Man
General Utility Man
Subforeman
Labor Foreman

PAINTING SERIES

Rough Painter
Painter
Painter Foreman

PLUMBING SERIES

Plumber's Helper
Plumber
Repairman (Machine Shop)
Thermostat Mechanic
Plumber and Heating
Foreman

TRANSPORTATION SERIES

Truck Driver
School Bus Driver
Automobile Mechanic
Supervisor, Fuel and
Transportation

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES

Stock Handler (Supply Yard)
Stock Handler (Warehouse)
Supervisor of Maintenance⁷

These classification plans and job descriptions drawn from actual school systems (Figures 13-15) demonstrate how such procedures bring orderliness to operational employment practices. The problems of salary, promotion, retention, and in-service training are also greatly simplified by such procedures.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

The nature of the supply of employees for the operational field in public schools makes mandatory some type of in-service training to fit

the employees for their responsibilities and to provide for promotion within the group. One of the real responsibilities upon those charged with selecting operational employees is to choose people who *will be able* to improve through in-service training. If this responsibility has been met, certain basic principles of training should be followed in relation to the more important groups of the operational personnel. Viles has set out a list of principles which he believes apply especially to custodial training.

1. It must be practical and realistic, related to the type of work the custodian has to do.
2. Instruction should be in terms the learner understands.
3. It should show the relationship of the operating and maintenance programs to the purposes and procedures of the educational program.
4. The training program should be set up in a series of attainable steps so that the learner may measure progress.
5. Instruction should be intermingled with demonstration and learner participation in discussions and in task performance. Class sizes should be limited to permit learner participation.
6. Instruction should be thorough. It should provide information on reasons and methods and the results expected. It should provide various methods of approach; complete each problem before taking up another; plan the job, practice, discuss procedures and results; and repeat to acceptable performance.
7. Training should aid the custodians in setting up work patterns and standards.
8. Each performance technique taught should become a part of a general work pattern or schedule.
9. It should point out additional sources of information and help the custodian to continue and extend his studies.
10. The custodian should be given a perspective of the whole maintenance and operation programs. The courses offered should have continuity, and the custodian should be assisted in planning his own training steps.
11. Training should aid the custodian in understanding his obligations and responsibilities and in correlating his work with that of his co-workers.
12. It should assist the custodian in evaluating his work in terms of services rendered. It should lead to a fuller understanding of the whole

job, competence in performance, and a pride in craftsmanship and accomplishment.⁸

There are several types of training provided for the various types of operational personnel. Frequently the administrator seeks to give personal direction and training to the employees. Apprenticeship relationships are also common, and some school systems send key employees to conferences and short courses.

The most productive approach, however, is a school-type training involving all or nearly all of the employees in some manner. The Minneapolis schools were pioneers in this approach, and currently the Denver schools have an outstanding custodial training program. Operated in connection with their adult education program, the course they provide for custodians *precedes* employment as well as acts as *in-service* training. They operate from well-developed units under skillful teachers and utilize experienced employees from the jobs that are being studied. The following areas are covered:

1. School housekeeping
 - a. Sweeping and dusting
 - b. Floor maintenance
 - c. Washing
 - d. Classroom mechanics
2. Plumbing and repair maintenance
 - a. Flush devices
 - b. Glazing and sash repair
 - c. Repair and maintenance of electrical motors, fixtures, and controls
3. Painting
4. Firemanship
5. Heat and air control
6. Hardware⁹

The Denver plan may be described as a four-point program in preparing and upgrading the personnel. The four points are (1) guidance and selection, (2) instruction, (3) testing, and (4) certification. This approach to the problem is a fairly typical one for vocational educa-

tion, and many school systems with able personnel in the vocational field could follow a similar procedure.

SUPERVISION OF OPERATING EMPLOYEES

The nature of the operating jobs within the school system and the type of employee that is usually available for the job require a more extensive supervisory program than is usually provided other school employees. It is true that careful selection, job classification and in-service training will materially assist, but a program of continued assistance to employees and an evaluation of their work is necessary. Supervision and evaluation go hand in hand with formal in-service training, but neither is a substitute for the other. Very closely associated with this problem is the matter of the work load of operating employees. Frequently, standards suffer when men are assigned to tasks so extensive and varied in nature that none can be performed well. Part of the supervisory responsibility, whether it is assumed by professional personnel or nonteaching staff employed for the purpose, is to determine work loads that are consistent with good employee relations and efficiency. The authors have not attempted to cover those relations in this chapter. Such areas as the custodial have received fuller treatment in complete books and bulletins. Increasingly, the professional magazines for school administrators carry excellent articles concerning this phase of personnel administration.

One of the excellent books to which the student might well refer is *The Custodian at Work*, by N. E. Viles.¹⁰ Dr. Viles has also written extensively in government bulletins and magazines. His *Improving School Custodial Service*¹¹ should be in the hands of every school administrator. A recent doctoral thesis by R. M. Roelfs is also an outstanding contribution in this field and one to which the authors have frequently referred.¹² Another helpful publication is Brainard's *Handbook for School Custodians*.¹³ As the title indicates, it is directed toward

helping the school custodian, in contrast to those publications that are essentially for the use of the school administrator.

THE MAINTENANCE PERSONNEL

In setting up a separate section for the discussion of the maintenance personnel, the authors recognize that they differ from the custom in many school systems of associating this group with the operational employees. This procedure has been followed deliberately for the sake of emphasizing certain special problems in this phase of personnel administration. The special responsibility of this group of employees is to "restore" grounds, buildings, or equipment to their original condition of completeness or efficiency. In this instance "restore" means to maintain. Such maintenance includes the repair of buildings, the upkeep of school sites, and the repair and replacement of old or badly worn equipment. Since neglect in this area would constitute serious loss in buildings and equipment to school districts, this personnel service has particular significance.

The maintenance function in the schools is usually handled in one of three ways: (1) the operational personnel perform certain minor maintenance tasks during the school year and are frequently assigned to others during the summer and other vacations; (2) a regular maintenance employee or group of employees, with the various craft specializations that are necessary, is available to perform the maintenance tasks; and (3) maintenance work, except for minor jobs performed by the operating personnel, is contracted to outside firms. Of course, a school system may have more than one plan for handling its maintenance, and many school systems actually use all three. This is a function of business management and will not be treated in this text except as it involves personnel administration.

Because of the variation in respect to organization in different school systems, it is more than usually difficult to comment with any degree of accuracy on the number of persons required to perform this function. Reference to Tables 2 and 3 in Chapter 1 will give some information, and will better demonstrate the previous statement. Part of the difficulty in making comparisons arises from the variations in practice already mentioned, but there is also a lack of uniformity from one

school district to another in respect to the classification of employees who do this work. Research is badly needed to determine the most satisfactory practices and the best types of organization. Such research is extremely difficult because of the variations between school districts in their maintenance needs. The age of buildings, their current condition, the local labor market, and other factors have definite effects upon cost.

PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTERING THE MAINTENANCE PERSONNEL

There are several problems in respect to administering this class of personnel. Those that have been noted in relation to the other classes of nonteaching employees, and especially those applying to the operational personnel, apply to this group as well. Such matters as selection, qualifications, in-service training, and supervision apply in almost the same manner to maintenance and operational employees. Certain minor differences, however, may be noted. The maintenance group must represent a number of specializations or crafts if most of the maintenance work is done by school-employed personnel. Common crafts that will undoubtedly be needed are carpenters, masons, painters, electricians, plumbers, and heating-and-ventilating-equipment workers. The small school system frequently tries to combine several of these skills in one worker in order to provide full-time maintenance personnel and reduce costs. The larger systems frequently employ craftsmen with each specialization. If the latter approach is followed, problems in respect to unionization, similar to those discussed for operational personnel, may be encountered. The craft group is even more likely to be unionized than the operational group, and thus the issues already discussed are more often raised. In a force of some size, engineers, draftsmen, and other professional and semiprofessional personnel are frequently needed. These have their own affiliations and standards to be considered.

Coördination and Supervision. A major problem in the administration of the nonteaching personnel is the coördination and supervision of this group of employees. If both operational and maintenance employees participate in certain phases of the maintenance program, the establishment of lines where the responsibility of each begins and ends

is frequently a real issue. The educational program and sometimes even the property of the school system is jeopardized by sharp cleavages concerning which group should carry out certain responsibilities. The limitations placed by certain unionized crafts upon their workers, whereby they may perform only certain tasks, is a case in point. This limitation often causes the school district extra expense and needless delays.

The place of job classification and description is clearly evident here, since such a procedure will go far toward meeting such issues. If there is a degree of staff participation in the planning of these relationships, and regularly established lines of communication and discussion of issues that may develop, the school system is likely to have better staff morale and better service. The use of a job description to specify the work of a particular craft is illustrated by Figure 16.

If the general supervision of both operational and maintenance employees can have responsibility fixed in an assistant superintendent in charge of both areas, or if the system is not large enough for such an administrative assistant, in a director responsible to the superintendent, the lines and services will probably be well established.

Each school system must, therefore, study its own problem, decide how it can best obtain the services it requires at a reasonable cost, and with due attention to the morale factors that affect the efficiency of workers. The relationship of the maintenance function to the educational program must not be overlooked. The morale and efficiency of the teaching staff is closely associated with the general state of maintenance of buildings and equipment. The planning of maintenance so that it interferes least and contributes best to the educational program is a factor that requires careful coordination. To have a maintenance crew appear at a building, without notice, and announce that they expect to do certain things that interfere with phases of the educational program in progress, has created more than one emergency situation for the school administrator.

While maintenance and operational personnel should be impressed with the importance of their work, the point of view that their work is performed to effectuate the educational program must be firmly established. Earlier statements in the text directed toward ways of

OFFICIAL NOTICE OF EXAMINATION

Civil Service Commission

City of Minneapolis

109 City Hall

CARPENTER (4151)

Salary: \$2.12 hr.

REQUIREMENTS

Four years of verifiable experience as carpenter.

DUTIES OF POSITION

This work involves responsibility for performing skilled tasks in the construction, maintenance, and repair of wooden structures, buildings, and equipment. It may include some responsibility for repairing and finishing furniture. Assignments are usually given orally, but may be given in the form of penciled layouts, rough sketches, or blueprints. Assigned tasks are usually performed independently, but may be inspected while in progress and are subject to inspection upon completion.

EXAMPLES OF WORK

Does general carpentry work in the construction, alteration, repair and maintenance of buildings, partitions, doors, windows, scaffoldings, forms, wood fixtures, and furniture.

Constructs wooden forms and scaffolding.

Repairs tables, chairs, benches, cupboards, counters, and other wooden equipment.

Makes and repairs doors and window screens.

Performs related work as assigned.

REQUIREMENTS OF WORK

Considerable knowledge of the standard practices, methods, materials, and tools of the carpentry trade.

Knowledge of the occupational hazards and safety precautions of the carpentry trade.

Ability to read, interpret, and work from sketches, layouts, and blueprints.

Skill in the care and use of tools and power machines used in the trade.

SUBJECTS AND WEIGHTS

Written examination: 6

Oral Interview: 4

FIGURE 16.

having all types of staff work and plan together have real significance in dealing with this problem.

THE SERVICE PERSONNEL

This growing group of employees in the public school system is composed chiefly of cafeteria and lunchroom personnel. The trend during the past two decades toward making the school lunch a part of the service of the schools and to make it an educational experience for

the children has caused this group of nonteaching personnel to be of considerable importance. Some schools employ persons to help with traffic problems and these employees might also be classified as service personnel.

The size of this group of employees is closely related, of course, to the extent of the lunch program and other service enterprises. The assistance of the Department of Agriculture to the school lunch, through subsidy and surplus commodities, has provided stimulation for the establishment of food services and leadership in developing this phase of personnel employment. Reference to Tables 2 and 3 in Chapter 1 will indicate the extent of employment in this field, including the wide variation between school systems and the extent to which part-time workers are used.

Because of the educational and health implications of the lunch program in the schools, careful attention must be given to the selection, qualifications, in-service training, and classification of these employees. The service required varies from the relatively professional type necessary for menu planning and management, to the work performed by unskilled and semiskilled persons such as bus boys and dishwashers.

SELECTION AND QUALIFICATIONS

The employment practices that have been recommended for the selection of other nonteaching personnel apply essentially to the service personnel. There are a few additional factors that should be stressed because of the type of service they perform, the part-time nature of many of the jobs in this area, and the high rate of turnover that seems characteristic of the persons best adapted to service in this field.

The health factor is one that must receive major consideration in food service workers. Most states and municipalities, through their board of health, require a physical and medical examination for persons to be assigned to duties as food handlers. A carefully established routine examination, making sure that the examining physician acts in the public interest as well as that of the workers, and covering all infectious and contagious diseases, is a must in any phase of food

SAMPLE CLASS DESCRIPTION San Diego City Schools Personnel Office

CAFETERIA MANAGER, JUNIOR

- I. *Essential functions of the class:* A Junior Cafeteria Manager, under direction of the school principal and the technical supervision of the Director of Cafeterias, is responsible for the efficient operation of a small elementary school cafeteria.
- II. A. *Primary duties:* A Junior Cafeteria Manager supervises and assists in the preparation and cooking of meals for school children; plans menus, supervises a small group of subordinates; orders all cafeteria commodities; checks goods received against requisitions; counts, verifies, and makes out reports on receipts from cafeteria sources.
B. *Other duties:* A Junior Cafeteria Manager is responsible for keeping a work record; supervises and assists in the maintenance of the cafeteria equipment; sets up counters and keeps them filled; supervises lunch lines; and performs duties as assigned.
- III. *Supervision received and exercised:* Direction is received from the principal of the school, and technical supervision from the Director of Cafeterias. Supervision is exercised over at least one subordinate.
- IV. *Comparison with related classes:* This class is distinguished from the Intermediate Cafeteria Manager in that the smaller quantity of food prepared and served limits the managerial responsibility for preparation of food, the use of equipment, and assigning the functions of the staff. A Junior Cafeteria Manager is a working manager and has fewer employees to supervise than any of the managers on higher levels. A Junior Cafeteria Manager differs from the Cafeteria Counter Service Attendant in that the latter has no responsibility.
- V. A. *Suggested prerequisites for taking an open competitive examination:*
 1. *Education:* Graduation from high school, or equivalent, including or supplemented by courses in home economics, dietetics, cafeteria management, or related courses.
 2. *Experience:* At least one year of recent experience in planning, preparing, and serving food in large quantities, with some experience in a managerial capacity being desirable.B. *Suggested qualifications for successful performance of work:*
 1. *Knowledge:* Knowledge of foods, food values, quantity cooking and nutrition; knowledge of the use and care of modern kitchen and cafeteria service equipment; knowledge of cafeteria organization and management and the principles of supervision; knowledge of the procedure followed in ordering, receiving, and storing of foods; familiarity with health and safety rules and regulations pertaining to food establishments; knowledge of cleaning, sanitation, and maintenance methods; ability to make arithmetical computations and to keep accurate records.
 2. *Skills:* Ability to prepare food, such as pastry, salads, and hot foods, in the quantity and quality required daily in elementary schools. Ability to train and supervise one or more cafeteria employees.
 3. *Personal:* The ability and willingness to follow directions; ability to work well with school personnel and students; ability to cooperate with other school system departments and to assist in formulating and maintaining food service policies; emotional stability, adaptability, and sound judgment.
 4. *Physical:* Good physical condition and strength sufficient to discharge the duties of the position.
- VI. A. *Machines, tools, and equipment used:* Modern kitchen and cafeteria service equipment.
B. *Working conditions:* Inside work subject to noise and confusion typical of school cafeterias.
C. *Registration, certificates, licenses required:* Food Handlers' certificate.
D. *Length of training period on job:* Three months.
- VII. *Typical lines of promotion:*
From: Cafeteria Counter Service Attendant
To: Intermediate Cafeteria Manager

FIGURE 17.

handling and is especially important in regard to food service in the schools which deal with children.

Improved employment practices generally are needed in the service personnel area because it has been characterized by a high turnover rate. This indicates that the school officials must apply sound employment practices, including the extending of welfare benefits of school district employment to these workers, and the adoption of an upgrading and

promotion plan that will encourage efficient workers to remain in their positions. A job classification and description plan works very well in an operation of any appreciable size. Figure 17 shows how one school system has applied this plan to one position in its service employees. This carefully drawn description of a job as cafeteria manager suggests the range of qualifications and responsibilities involved in the position. Each job in the food service organization can be covered in a similar manner, depending upon its nature and responsibility.

SUPERVISION AND IN-SERVICE TRAINING

The nature of this employee group and the type of service to be performed suggest the importance of supervision and in-service training. The tendency of school systems to employ persons for supervisory and key jobs in the food service program who are not thoroughly trained is a major problem. This has led to inadequate leadership and has created the necessity for in-service training to the supervisory group as well as the other employees. State and local boards of health have been of great assistance in providing this in-service training and some large school systems with extensive programs have set up their own programs to train their employees before they are assigned to jobs. In some instances, school systems organize classes for certain types of training and then draw their employees from those who successfully complete the course.

This area is one in which the school systems can do much for themselves. Training in food service can be dealt with through departments of home economics and adult education, as training of clerical personnel is facilitated by commercial and vocational education departments. In spite of the desirability of doing much of the in-service training through class or group activities, individual training is very important in relation to certain types of jobs and in instances where the employee group is small. This individual type of in-service training can be handled personally by the lunchroom manager or other person in charge, and can be augmented by written instructions.

The careful organization of the entire food service management personnel under the supervision of a professionally trained person is the fundamental approach to the entire problem. The serving of

thousands of lunches to hundreds of children requires levels of management of purchasing, accounting, personnel, and food preparation that have been underestimated by school officials in many cases.

OTHER NONTEACHING PERSONNEL

It is difficult to classify certain types of school personnel because actually they are not professional educators nor do they classify as nonteaching personnel in the manner the term is applied to the clerical, operational, maintenance, and service employees. This group includes personnel from other professional or semiprofessional fields and from certain skilled groups. Some of these are physicians, dentists, dental hygienists, nurses, recreation workers, architects, engineers, draftsmen, accountants, auditors, legal assistants, publicity and public relations assistants, and radio and television technicians.

While such personnel are employed, particularly by large school systems, the nature of their work in each case makes them more closely related to their own particular field of specialization than to education. The range of this group of employees from the highly professional to the skilled classification indicates the breadth of the personnel problem in coordinating them with the educational staff. While each professional or semiprofessional employee renders an important service to education, he retains his own professional characteristics. This interrelationship of the professions is necessary to the full performance of the services of the public schools, and yet a situation is created wherein the body of personnel practices built up by the school system to care for the majority of its employees does not fully apply. This creates morale problems for boards and administrators, since in some instances exceptions in respect to salary, working conditions, and general participation in the school system must be made. This practice seems to create inequalities when the total group of employees is considered.

If the services from other professional and semiprofessional groups can be carefully defined in relation to their function in the school system, and the professional status of all groups, including educators, adequately protected, such misunderstandings can be kept at a minimum. Some school systems have made progress toward incorporating these auxiliary professional services into the general personnel pattern

of the public schools. For example, physicians are employed by some school systems on a job classification and description basis. Figure 18 indicates how the Akron school system sets up specifications for a school physician. Because of the problems of professional relationships,

SAMPLE CLASS SPECIFICATION
CLASSIFICATION PLAN
Board of Education
Akron, Ohio

Series: Medical
Classes: School Physician

CLASS TITLE: School Physician

DUTIES STATEMENT

Under direction of the Superintendent of Schools or other officer, to be responsible for the inspection and physical examination of children in the public schools; and to do other work as required.

EXAMPLES OF TYPICAL TASKS

To make special examinations and diagnosis of children for communicable diseases and physical defects; to exclude sick children from school; to consult with principals, teachers, school nurses and parents of children; to instruct on conditions pertaining to Hygiene and Health of Children; examine children between the ages of 16 and 18 years for working certificates; examine and make reports.

QUALIFICATION STANDARDS

Education and Experience: Graduation in medicine from a University of recognized standing; registration as a physician in the State of Ohio.

Additional Desirable Qualifications: Knowledge and experience in the diagnosis of diseases of children; ability to handle children; neatness, carefulness; integrity; and tact.

USUAL LINE OF PROMOTION

From: None

To: No Position

SALARY RANGE

FIGURE 18.

the duties statement in the specification, wherein the responsibility of the physician to the superintendent of schools is clearly established, clears up at the outset any question of lines of authority and function.

Many of the relationships between the school personnel program and the employment and use of other professional and semiprofessional personnel must be worked out by the superintendent or personnel officer of the school system with the several professional organizations that, to a degree at least, regulate professional practices.

Considerable progress has been made of late between the medical profession and the educators. A basis for further coöperation has been developed through the production of an American Association of School Administrators Yearbook on *Health in the Schools*.¹⁴ Such fundamental understandings must be developed with other professional groups if they are to be fully effective in their work with the schools. At the same time, educators must not lose sight of their fundamental responsibility to the child, and the fact that the schools are public institutions.

ECONOMIC AND WELFARE CONSIDERATIONS APPLIED TO THE NONTEACHING PERSONNEL

Increasingly, school boards and school administrators are facing the economic and welfare considerations of their personnel as a total employee group problem. In contrast to dealing with each set of employees separately, many have made welfare considerations system-wide in their application.

Such considerations as sick leave, health and accident insurance, retirement, processes of dismissal, and grievance action are being looked upon as matters for which a common policy should be developed and applied to all employees. Salary considerations must be kept on a different basis because of the wide variation in preparation levels and responsibilities associated with the different positions. Even in the salary area similar *principles* may govern. By applying such basic uniformity, the possibility of obtaining coöperation and high morale in the total staff is much enhanced. This approach to the problem is based upon the point of view, previously expressed by the authors, that human relations are a major consideration in personnel practice and that policies that preserve human resources pay largest dividends in the long run.

VARIATION IN BASES FOR ECONOMIC AND WELFARE CONSIDERATIONS

Some of the administrative problems in dealing with the issues that have been raised in this section result from the various and, to a degree,

conflicting, legal bases for extending such considerations to the non-teaching personnel. Using the large city school system as an example, it was noted on page 105 of this text that in only about one-half of this group does the board of education have full control of all aspects of the employment of the nonteaching personnel. This variation in basic control is reflected in the kind of considerations that may be provided in the welfare field. Generally speaking, the states have legislated in respect to the teaching employees but have, in many instances, ignored the nonteaching employees such as clerical workers, operation and maintenance employees, and especially the service group. Often where there is adequate state legislation, local boards have been given permissive authority to the point where there is little uniformity of practice even within states, and many groups of school employees are not covered even by a retirement plan.

The fact that a large percentage of nonteaching employees are not covered, leaves a considerable problem for solution. One of the proposed solutions is the application of the Federal Social Security program to the nonteaching personnel. While there are many legal problems, and in some cases it might seriously interfere with the soundness of state and local retirement plans for school employees, it is worth exploration to determine under what circumstances the social security plan might help to meet this problem.

SOCIAL SECURITY AND THE SCHOOL EMPLOYEE

The authors are of the firm conviction that the Federal Social Security program will have a profound effect upon future public employment retirement planning and operation. The legislative policy of the several states and municipal governments in respect to this subject will of necessity require reconsideration, and perhaps a revision, as the full impact of the federal law becomes progressively more pronounced with the passage of years. It will no longer be possible to consider local plans as an isolated and insulated problem of limited geographic concern. The present federal law contains a mandatory exclusion of public employees who are covered by local plans. It authorizes the inclusion of noncovered public employees through the medium of state-enabling legislation which would constitute an agreement embodying the terms

and conditions of such coverage. But irrespective of whether or not presently noncovered public employees are ultimately provided with social security protection, or are by appropriate legislative action given coverage under applicable acts, the stage has been set for a period of conflict and uncertainty as the merits of the respective local plans are weighed and evaluated in relation to social security.

It is evident that there are patent differences between social security and some local plans. This is especially true in respect to benefits for short-term service, and in the collateral benefit schedule which includes additional benefits for wives and husbands, dependent children, widows and widowers, mothers, and dependent parents. The substantially lower employee rate of contributions (as compared to the rates in local plans), and the preservation of earned credits upon unrestricted transfers in employment wherever social security is in effect, in some instances appear to be advantages over local plans of coverage. Benefit payments for short-term service and for workers in the low salary brackets are usually substantially greater under social security than under local plans.

It is entirely plausible that many public employees, covered and noncovered, upon realization of the disparity between social security and local plans may insist either upon liberalization of the local plans to equalize the benefits, or integration or supplementation of the local plans with social security.

It is the authors' conviction that the retirement problem cannot be solved by the abandonment of local plans and the substitution of social security. Such a solution would deal only superficially and ineffectively with the fundamental issues underlying the problem. Local retirement plans serve an essential need in the development and solution of a difficult personnel problem in school systems.

In the recruitment of desired personnel and in their retention, a pension or annuity plan plays an important and decisive role. It is, in fact, the principal justification for the operation and maintenance of local retirement plans. A national plan of social security cannot promote this impelling objective of local systems. The purpose of a social insurance plan is solely one of humanitarian motivation, that is, to provide reasonable subsistence needs for persons who have reached an

unemployable status and for their dependents and survivors. It has little or no concern with the all-important personnel objective upon which local plans are predicated. It is precisely what its title denotes, a system of social security and nothing more. Consequently, its emphasis is upon benefits unrelated to service. Thus assuming the same rate of earnings during the determinative employment period, a person who has been covered for 30 years may receive the same rate of benefit as one covered for only 5 years.

The differences in the objectives of social security and local retirement coverage are crucial to the problem. Sometimes the perspective of the local employee is limited to only the comparative advantage of short-term service provided by social security. Again, school district employees may be impressed with the economic advantages of social security, because of immediately lower employee contributions. The broader perspective is to comprehend the advantages and limitations of both plans and to encourage the development of a program that preserves the essential objectives of each.

Eventually, it is hoped that the best features of local plans and social security coverage may be merged by a process of integration, but until practical plans of integration have been formulated and developed on a basis that will insure the preservation and perpetuation of existing rights and expectancies for present employees, this hope will not be realized.

It has been estimated that possibly one-half of the country's non-certificated public school employees are members of state or local retirement systems even though, in many instances, these systems are separate from those for teachers. Public school personnel, when not covered by state or local retirement systems or pension plans, may be covered by Old Age and Survivors Insurance of the Social Security Act, if indicated in a voluntary compact made between the state and the Social Security Administration.

Because of the substantial number of public school employees not covered by any type of protection for retirement and because there are some retirement plans whose benefits are not as great as those under social security, there is a considerable feeling that the Social Security Act should be amended as it applies to local and state employees. It is

the opinion of the authors that any such amendment, while desirable to permit protection and coverage for those not now protected, should provide adequate safeguards for the rights and equities of those persons under existing retirement systems. Any such amendment should set forth the detail under which the public employees would determine whether or not they wished social security coverage, and also that the vested rights in the retirement plan, both of the retired employee and those in active service, should be guaranteed by the state or local jurisdiction before it is eligible for Social Security.

UNSOLVED PROBLEMS IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE NONTEACHING PERSONNEL

In the introduction to this chapter, it was noted that the problems to be discussed represented an area where much study and research could profitably be made. An attempt has been made by the authors to cover many of the problems most associated with the general subject of this text, personnel administration in education. They recognize, however, that many issues remain unsolved and wish to suggest some of the fields for further study and research. In suggesting the fields, a convenient organization into five main areas, with appropriate subpoints to give further meaning, has been adopted.

A. General Administration

1. School board policy in respect to the nonteaching personnel
2. Methods of administering the nonteaching personnel
3. Communication and morale considerations, both in respect to the administrative relationship and the teaching employees

B. Job Classification and Description

1. Further development of the classification idea and its wider application to school systems of all sizes
2. Development of standards relative to work loads that will permit adequacy of staff
3. Further study of the numerous situations where dual responsibility develops, i.e., the custodian to the principal of the building and to his line supervisor
4. Elimination of politics and favoritism in employment and the substitution of merit employment practices

C. In-Service Training and Evaluation of Services

1. More extensive application of existing resources in the school system for in-service programs for the nonteaching personnel
2. Area and state plans to afford in-service programs to medium and small school systems that have difficulty in operating their own
3. Some application of the merit idea that will link needs for in-service training, evaluation, and promotion and salary considerations

D. Relationships

1. The promotion of better understanding in the nonteaching staff of the educational task and responsibility of the schools
2. Better means of coordinating all types of school personnel
3. Further progress in the employee-relation problem associated with the trade union

E. Economic and Welfare Considerations

1. Extension of such welfare considerations as retirement, insurance, etc., to all nonteaching employees
2. Better coordination in such factors between the local, state, and national levels
3. Development of a group of employees in each school system that will have continuity, a degree of know-how and interest, and who can serve the best interests of education

The best place to begin the solution of such problems is through local study and application of the best practices known. While we do not have final answers, we can be certain that improvement will develop as have employment and other personnel practices in the teaching field.



CHAPTER 7

Coördination of the Personnel

The discussion throughout the past several chapters has demonstrated the wide variation in the personnel functions in the public schools and the range of employees that is required to fulfill them. To secure performance of the variety of functions, the school administrator has been urged to seek talent from all the professions and skills. This spread of interests and abilities in the staff, whether the staff is large or small, creates a coördination problem that is experienced in few organizations.

The common goal of all the employees of the school system, as the authors have reiterated on several occasions, should be to provide an adequate learning and environmental situation for the child. The problem of each group of employees is to find its place in such a scheme of things, and the problem of administration is to bring the various employee forces to bear upon the achievement of the goal. This concept of the personnel in education functioning as a "team" has appeared elsewhere in this text. It may be said that the task of making a diverse

group of employees into an operating team is the personnel administrator's hardest job.

The statement that the employee group is diverse in skills and functions is by no means a criticism. The services they perform inevitably require this situation. Only about 2 out of 3 are trained educational personnel, and even these have varied backgrounds. The remaining employees are drawn from a number of fields and have had, as a rule, no special interest in or background for school work before they entered the employ of the school system. In fact, the nature of the work to be performed actually tends to disunite the total employee group rather than to unite them. The only chance, then, for achieving an employee team is to establish interest in and concern for a common goal, and to set up ways and means of coördinating the various efforts toward it. It is to these ends that the authors are directing their attention in this chapter.

PROBLEMS IN RESPECT TO COÖRDINATION

Before any positive suggestions or plans can be advanced to effect coördination, some analysis must be made of the problems that must be faced in dealing with this issues involved. In analyzing the problems, an attempt will be made to deal with those that appear in all types of situations. It is clear that no two situations are exactly alike, and that the personality factor in each situation is an uncontrollable variable. In fact, the latter is admittedly the largest factor to be dealt with in a program to coördinate the personnel activities. Therefore, fully recognizing this aspect of the problem, it is necessary to suggest ways and means that will permit the achievement of a reasonable degree of coördination in spite of the difficult factors that may be involved. This suggests that the administrator familiarize himself, as far as possible, with those elements with which he must deal before an organization is set up or goals established. He must take into account his own personality and the problems he encounters in working with others. This point is made to eliminate, in so far as possible, the subjective approach to the problem and to deal with it impartially as an abstract problem to be solved. If educational workers can even ap-

proach this point of view, they will have cleared one of the greatest hurdles in the path of effective coördination.

A BODY OF PUBLIC EMPLOYEES

The fact that the personnel serving the schools is a body of public employees is a factor in achieving coördination. As public employees they are controlled, to a considerable degree, by state laws and local regulations; and as individuals and members of a profession or vocational group, by the voluntary controls of their professional or other relationships. This duality, although it does not in itself create conflict, frequently creates a condition whereby coördination is made difficult. Serving the public, especially working with its children, is by no means the easiest of tasks, and this further complicates the problem. Constant relationships with the public, in exacting and somewhat personal situations, create emotional stresses that frequently are reflected to a greater extent within the personnel than toward the public being served. Sometimes too, economic and other factors disturb the employee group to the point where coördination problems result. The standard of living demanded by the public, of its educational personnel in particular, is not always consistent with their means, and this further complicates the problem of welding the school employees into a working team. The authors are attempting to develop the point that there are special problems of coördination resulting from public employment. To contend that they are more difficult than all other employee situations, either in private enterprise or government would perhaps overdraw the problem; but the contention that there is a set of conditions created by the nature of the employment of the educational personnel seems a fair approach to the problem.

TURNOVER AND PART-TIME FACTORS

One of the characteristics of the personnel employed in the public schools is the high rate of turnover in the group. Turnover varies, of course, with the type of personnel being considered and with the school district, or even with the state. This factor is particularly true of the nonteaching personnel in all kinds of school districts, and of the teaching personnel in the small and inadequately organized districts. Co-

ordination in a constantly changing work force is difficult in any situation, and is especially difficult in a school system where the nature of the work is so complicated. The fact that school systems are inadequately staffed in their personnel management area often further complicates this problem. During the period since the beginning of World War II, turnover rates in school systems have at times threatened to demoralize the operation of certain school districts.

The factor of part-time employment introduces another complication into the coordination picture. Certain groups of employees, such as transportation workers, school lunch employees, and in some systems operational and maintenance personnel, are essentially part-time workers. This means that their interests are divided and that their employment continues only so long as it is economically profitable to them. Reference to Table 2 will indicate the extent of the part-time factor in the total public school employment in this country.

To an extent, teaching has been a part-time relationship for a certain group of educational employees. In districts where the pay is so inadequate as to force the employee to secure outside employment during evenings, week ends, and vacations, a similar division of interest develops. There is inadequate time for professional improvement and for many of the extra duties that improve the services of a teacher. These conditions operate to reduce the effectiveness of the teaching force, to the end that the public relations of the staff are affected, and the whole administrative problem made more complicated.

The adoption of policies calculated to relieve these conditions appears to be the best approach to the problems created by turnover and part-time employment. Frequent reference will be made to such policies as the local aspects of personnel administration which are developed in Part III.

DIFFICULTY OF APPLYING UNIFORM POLICIES AND PROCESSES TO THE PERSONNEL

The personnel of the public schools is made up of such a wide variety of employees that the application of uniform policies and processes is virtually impossible. Yet to achieve an effective employee team, a certain uniformity is necessary if morale is to be maintained. This

challenge to personnel workers in education is only now being recognized. Too frequently in the past, the school administrator was thought of as one who worked essentially with the professional employees and in a kind of extracurricular manner with other employees of the school district. Both from an operating and morale standpoint, the problem must be met in respect to the total personnel. The challenge of developing policies and processes, extending welfare considerations, improving evaluation methods, and studying morale factors generally has only recently been recognized as a part of the total function of school administration.

ADMINISTRATIVE LINES DIFFICULT TO ESTABLISH

Certain positions in the personnel of the public schools are, by their very nature, difficult to define in terms of responsibility. They must, for example, function in relation to both teaching and nonteaching situations. Such conditions create coördination problems that must be solved. One of the best examples of this problem lies in the work of the school custodian. His directions in relation to general school operation must come from the principal in charge of a building. At the same time many of his functions are carried out under the general supervision of a supervisor of custodians or a director of school plant operation. Frequently *what* such an employee does may be under the direction of one person and *how* he does it under the direction of another. The place of job description and definition of responsibility, which has been stressed in Chapter 6, is closely related to this problem.

Numerous other staff relations are similarly involved. The whole field of school business management is full of such problems. The relationships of the supervisor or helping teacher to the teacher and to the principal are others with which the administrator constantly struggles. Many of these have been developed in previous chapters and are only dealt with here to illustrate the problem in respect to coördination.

METHODS OF COÖRDINATION

A distinction is necessary between the previous discussion in respect to types of organization and the factor of coördination that is being

developed in this section. *Organization* is, generally speaking, the arrangement of parts in a certain relationship to each other. In contrast to this function, *coördination* is a process which results in those parts functioning in harmony with each other. The latter is the more difficult process and represents a challenge to the administration, but it is the one which really represents the ultimate goal that it is trying to achieve—to meet the needs of boys and girls in a learning situation.

Many of the previous chapters have dealt with aspects of this problem. The discussions of organization, morale, the divisions of responsibility, and relationships have a definite bearing on the problem of coördination. It is the purpose of this section to deal with additional factors whose purpose is to achieve a high degree of coördination. It should be recognized at the outset that achieving coördination is like pursuing any other ideal. While it may be partially achieved, its full attainment is always just beyond reach. The discussions which follow are directed toward achieving such coördination as will make for efficient functioning of the school system and the realization of the goal of providing an adequate learning and environmental situation* for the child.

It is impossible to deal with all aspects and methods of coördination in our limited discussion. In contrast to a selective approach which possibly would yield a pattern that might not work in a given situation, the authors have chosen to discuss the machinery of coördination, with the view to its being applied or adapted to many different administrative situations. At the outset such an approach might indicate a review of the previous discussion of organization. There is a relationship but not a duplication. In dealing with the process of coördination the personnel function within the organization will be essentially emphasized.

The methods of coördination of the personnel in different sizes and types of school systems will vary greatly. The personality factors mentioned earlier and the background and general makeup of the employee group will determine the emphasis upon the several factors that will undoubtedly be included in any program of coördination. This discussion is aimed at a common core of activities that will undoubtedly appear in any type of school situation where an attempt is

being made to coördinate staff activities. It appears that the following are indispensable to such a process:

1. An adequate body of personnel policy
2. Personnel services suited to the situation
3. Processes of communication and participation adjusted to need
4. Adequate reporting and research to keep the system abreast of its problems
5. Evaluation and appraisal of staff efficiency

POLICY TO COÖRDINATE PERSONNEL

The basis of the operation of the entire school system is an adequate body of policy approved by the lay board of education. Since the school system accomplishes its most important function through personnel, policy in this area is of greatest importance. Certain policy must be established on a state-wide basis to assure reasonable uniformity, but most of the policy determination is at the local level, where school administrators and staff work with a lay board of education and the public generally. It is to this latter aspect of the problem that our attention is essentially directed.

The principles of personnel organization to which the authors subscribe were developed in Chapter 2. Policy development to cover each of these principles, and any others felt necessary by local authorities, is essential. In a sense, such policies would be background to certain operating ones covering a wide range of practical issues that are involved in personnel administration. Basic policies covering areas stressed in the set of principles already referred to are almost non-existent in written form in the public school structure, although many board members and administrators admittedly believe in them. The following are illustrative of the type that would give substance and direction to the more specific policies that will be further illustrated in this discussion.

1. The personnel organization and procedures shall be such as to assure the preservation of human values
2. Democratic processes shall be employed, coupled with efficiency of operation

3. The release of the creative ability and the growth and development of all members of the staff shall be fundamental goals
4. The nature of the personnel procedure and process shall be such as to relieve tensions and frustrations in the staff and satisfy the basic desires of individuals, such as security, recognition, and "belongingness"
5. Processes of participation in policy making and planning shall be provided, to the end that those who are affected by policy shall have participated in its development

If school administrators had, as a background for their personnel programs, such policies officially approved by their boards of education, the personnel structure and the specific policies covering the many operating phases of personnel administration would take on new meaning.

It is recognized that more specific policies are necessary in personnel operation. Some of the areas that should be covered by them are: processes of selection and appointment, promotion, salaries, tenure, evaluation, sick leave and medical examinations, vacations, retirement, insurance, and job classification and description. Policies covering the types of issues outlined above are common in most school systems which are well administered. Usually, however, they have been formed in the absence of background policies of the type previously emphasized. Actually, every one of the specific policies should be considered against the structure of fundamental ones.

A policy area all too frequently neglected has to do with understanding concerning limits of autonomy in so far as the various personnel are concerned. To deal with such issues is sometimes considered undemocratic. The democratic process does not imply that decisions should not be made concerning the autonomy of a given personnel responsibility. Provided the *processes* used by the group to determine the autonomy is considerate of the personnel responsibility, it may develop that such a procedure is actually highly democratic since it considers the rights and responsibilities of others. The technique of job classification and description is clearly a fundamental approach to the problem of determining autonomy and is frequently referred to in other sections of the text.

Similarly, the staff policy in respect to its discipline, that is, its be-

havior and the consequences that result, is a matter for policy concern. A society that reaches the level that it practices self-discipline is, of course, far in advance of the one that must be disciplined through external controls. If, through the development of policy by staff participation, a group sets up its own standards and goals to the end that it is chiefly a self-disciplined group, its morale and performance is likely to be greatly improved. Elsewhere in the text the authors have referred to the fact that a profession has an obligation to "police" itself. In so far as it is possible such a goal should be considered, since it reduces the external controls that are necessary.

The most carefully developed policy, democratically arrived at and wisely administered, will not prevent the necessity of some disciplinary measure being taken by those who have legal or similar responsibility. The reduction of such action to those cases which are easily recognized as being detrimental to the group welfare is the object of policy in this area. Clearly such policy should be concerned with the basic objectives of the school system and under no circumstances should it be punitive.

A later section in this chapter will stress the service of the *personnel handbook*. It is in this document that many of the personnel policies, processes, and procedures will have been organized and made available to the entire staff and the public. Such handbooks are relatively common, but the authors have not found a single one that approaches the problem as fundamentally as they have urged that it be considered.

Adequate policy concerning personnel administration should be progressive in its nature. That is, it should be constantly growing and developing as the public, board of education, and staff have new insights into the ways they may work together. All staff policy, like all administration, should be built around the common goal for the entire staff, namely the provision of an adequate learning and environmental situation for the child.

In an earlier chapter the suggestion was made that policy was a working tool. In this instance it is being suggested as a tool for effecting staff coördination.

Since the importance of the learning opportunity is the basic purpose of the coördination effort, it must follow that the coördination of the

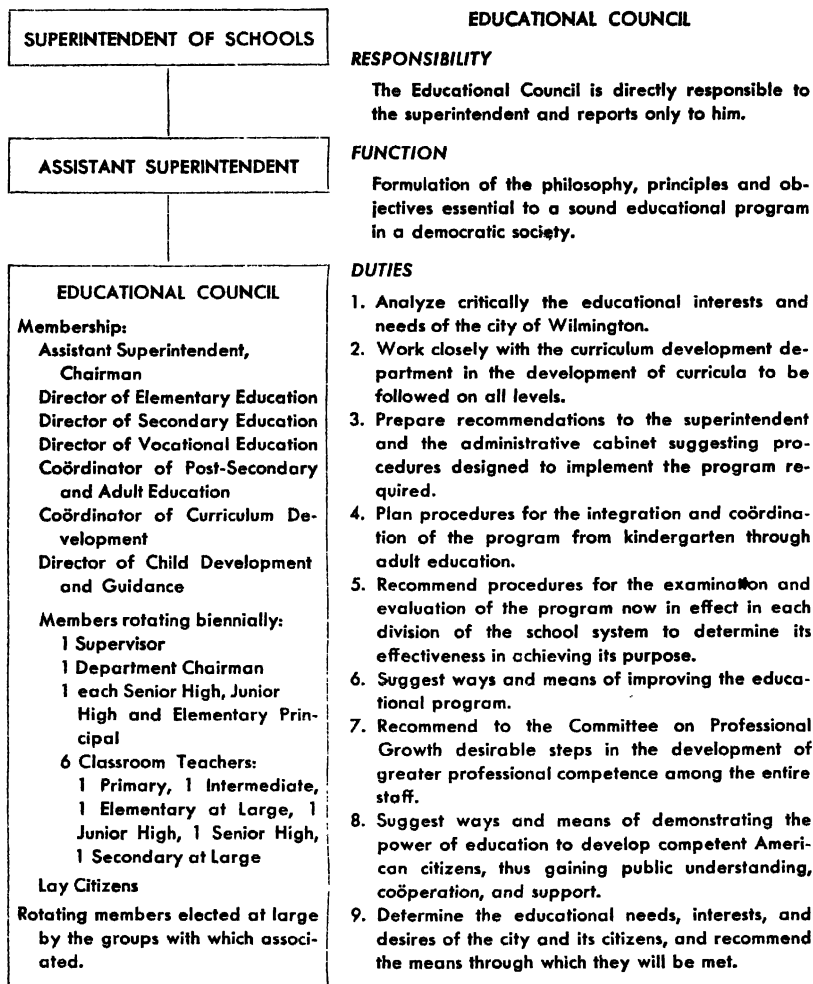


FIGURE 19. (From Wilmington Public Schools, *Administrative Organization and Functions*, Board of Public Education, Wilmington, Delaware, February, p. 21.)

educational program is a prime objective. This can only be accomplished by bringing all interests into focus through some kind of overall organization. The Wilmington schools have attempted to obtain certain coordination through their Educational Council. Figure 19 describes its responsibility, function, and duties, and indicates its mem-

bership. The relationship of the council to the superintendent of schools is also indicated. It is interesting to note that while it represents all segments of the professional staff and even laymen, the nonteaching personnel are not represented. This is typical of the approach to such problems and represents one of the unsolved relationships in attempting to obtain coördination.

THE PERSONNEL SERVICES AND COÖRDINATION

The effective operation of the school system will, to a considerable extent, be governed by how its personnel services function. This area of school administration must be closely associated with the work of the superintendent of schools. In fact, in the small school system the personnel services are essentially those he performs. Only in large systems are they delegated to directors, administrative assistants, or assistant superintendents. Even in this delegation they must remain, if they are to function properly, *staff* functions directly responsible to the superintendent.

The organization of the personnel services or department in any school system, or the performance of the duties by the superintendent himself, must involve determining:

1. The place of the department in the school organization
2. The professional services that are required
3. The clerical services that are required
4. The records and reports that are needed

The duties that the personnel officer performs develop naturally from the concept of his function. Thought of as a staff officer, he is recognized as the specialist in his field, and his function is to assist line administration and serve the staff generally in its process of service and improvement. Definitions of duties spring from policy governing the personnel area generally and the delegation of responsibility from the superintendent. A recent careful analysis of the nature of the problems that must be dealt with by the personnel officer in a large school system is as follows:

1. Wage and salary problems which include a knowledge of job classification and job evaluation procedures
2. Evaluations of effectiveness of personnel with the specialized knowl-

- edge of in-service training programs needed to overcome deficiencies
3. Selection, orientation, promotion, apprenticeships, and administrative training programs requiring related skills
 4. Communications, grievances, disciplinary actions, morale surveys, and relations with employee associations, which require related skills¹

This outline of problems suggests the duties of the personnel officer. If he is a person whose assignment is this function alone, his job is sufficiently heavy—if he is the superintendent with all the other responsibility which devolves upon him he has an especially difficult load.

The wide range of skills necessary to deal with this series of problems suggests the weakness of educational administration generally in dealing with them. Such a delineation also suggests something as to the quantitative nature of the job of the personnel officer. School systems have, in general, woefully understaffed this area of administration. A comparison of the personnel staff in school systems to that in business, industry, and government indicates the disadvantage under which most school personnel systems operate. In contrast to school systems that tend to assign one professional personnel officer to the total task regardless of size, business and industry, as well as government, tend to keep a much more favorable ratio of personnel officers to employees. The National Foreman's Institute, Inc., reports that a ratio of 1:133 exists between personnel workers and employees in companies employing 2000 to 2499 workers. Among government agencies the ratio was 1:300 on January 1.

Most school systems will feel that such ratios cannot be achieved, but those who studied the Pasadena system, to which we have just referred, recommended that four professional staff members be assigned to that staff numbering about 2000, the assignment to be one professional worker to each of the four areas that should be serviced, as previously outlined. This recommendation also included adequate clerical staff, some of whom should be especially trained so that they would be of major assistance to the professional personnel. In the Pasadena recommendation it was

suggested that one of the professional personnel employees be an assistant to the superintendent, with the other professional personnel staff responsible to him.³

If personnel offices were set up in the proper relationship to the general administration, with adequate professional staff in terms of numbers and qualifications, and were adequately supported by a body of personnel policy, the possibilities of a coördinated staff action to accomplish the goals of the schools would be greatly enhanced.

The first function of the personnel office is service in the several categories that have been set out. Its second function is as a record-keeping agency. It is impossible to suggest all of the forms and records that should be used in such an office. Some are required by law and board regulation. Others develop as a result of policies covering certain areas. For example, a policy of sick leave creates a demand for a record that will service it. Since systems vary so widely and it is not possible to suggest a specific system, a set of principles that may serve as a guide are suggested:

1. Maintain only those records for which the frequency of use justifies the cost. Data used more infrequently can be obtained at the time of need. Extent of home-ownership is an example.
2. Records required by law should be kept in a current file.
3. Personal data concerning abilities, growth, and development should be kept in a current confidential file and maintained with great care.
4. Data significant to group tabulation should be maintained on IBM cards for ready tabulation.
5. No new personnel activity should be planned without consideration of the records and reports involved. These should be studied in the light of records and reports available so that they are incorporated into a system, rather than become an addition to the system.
6. No new record or report should be planned until the total time load required for its completion is calculated and that time adjusted so that no unreasonable burden is placed on the person who must supply the information.
7. Each file should be reviewed each year and nonpertinent data discarded.⁴

Even in dealing with such principles, certain adaptations must be made to serve different types of school systems. For example, IBM cards are suggested in principle number 4 as a record and tabulating device. Obviously, this would apply only to systems large enough to justify mechanical tabular devices. Actually, however, such procedures are adaptable to school systems of average size and their use should be explored. There are other mechanical devices especially adapted to the small system which the administrator may well investigate. Personnel records are especially valuable, and school systems should guard them with care. Even those records of persons no longer employed should be retained in inactive files for reference.

COMMUNICATION AND PARTICIPATION IN THE PROCESS OF CO-ORDINATION

Earlier chapters have dealt with these problems in relation to the organization and morale of the staff. They also have a direct function in effecting coördination. This function is probably the most difficult of all to carry out, in that it involves securing the loyalty of employees to an organization. Many other factors are so closely associated with this problem that it is frequently difficult to determine which one is most effective. Some employees are more affected, for example, by pay rates than by such factors as security or status. However, it is generally recognized that communication and participation are widely effective in dealing with staff. Perhaps it is not going too far to say that staff loyalty, which greatly affects coördination, will never exist unless there is an adequate system of communication and sufficient participation to enable each employee to know the policies and procedures of this system, his exact responsibilities and relations within the organization, and, further, to have participated in their formulation.

Communication in this relationship must be two-way and must be geared to reach all staff levels. Participation can have the same characteristics, but like all participation in democratic procedures, should be related to the ability of the participant to make a contribution. Previous chapters have emphasized the techniques and devices that may be used in communication and participation processes. They need not be reviewed here; consideration of communication and participa-

tion has been essentially to establish their relation to the problem of staff coördination. A device frequently employed to good advantage in the process of coördination is the personnel handbook. Some of the essential considerations in its preparation and use follow.

THE PERSONNEL HANDBOOK

There is a need for clearly formulated policies and procedures to guide superintendents, boards of education, and school personnel. It is because of this need, the still relatively limited use of written guides to policies and procedures, and a general lack of comprehensive coverage in those now in use that prompts the authors to include in this chapter a fairly comprehensive consideration of the preparation and use of the personnel handbook or guide.

Some boards of education are required by the law to make rules and regulations for their government and the government of the schools under their control. Even where there is no such law, it would be desirable to establish rules and regulations in order that there might be common understanding and uniformity in regard to basic policies and procedures. Too often "rules and regulations" carry an undertone of compulsion and dictatorial practice. The publication of rules and regulations is not a substitute for a personnel handbook. Although such a handbook or guidebook must necessarily be based upon rules and regulations of the board of education, it must provide sufficient guidance and information concerning policies, objectives, and procedures that each staff member may make his best contribution to the program and be happy in his work.

Purpose of the Handbook. An organization without a well-known plan of procedures and policies is like a ship without a rudder—it is incapable of direction. In order to supply such a "rudder" to provide information believed to be essential and helpful in expediting routine procedures, the publication of a handbook or guidebook on policies and procedures is desirable. Such a publication consists of general statements that set forth the purposes, organization, and program of a school district. The guide provides direction in the handling of given aspects of the district program as a matter of continuing future practice, and establishes the functions and organizational relationships of

all major positions. At the district level, it provides a framework within which the superintendent and his staff can democratically operate with freedom and initiative. It should not include administrative instructions nor be too restrictive in nature.

Effective administration cannot be achieved by mere conformity to regulations and the perfunctory application of rules. Every employee must accept responsibility for the intelligent study and interpretation of general rules in relation to the educational needs of his own community, and must employ a judicious combination of wisdom and loyalty to school policies in the application of rules and regulations. It is to this end that the handbook should be directed.

The personnel handbook at best is a summary of practices and policies of the district. More complete, detailed statements of policy and practice usually will be found in the minutes of the board of education and bulletins issued from time to time by the superintendent and his staff. To include all statements of policy, provisions of the law, and details which are administrative in nature in a publication of this type would be prohibitive.

Specific Uses. The chief values or uses of the guide will be to orient new members of the board of education and new staff members; to provide continuity when there are changes on the board or staff; to save time of administrators and board members by reducing the amount of official action necessary and by enabling personnel to handle problems at the moment they arise; to clarify thinking and improve morale of those who formulate the guide; to furnish an opportunity for staff growth; to be a part of the program of interpretation of the school to the public; to provide legal safeguards for the board and staff; and to clarify the functions and relationships of the board and the staff.

A handbook will be especially helpful to the new employee by aiding him to obtain a broad understanding of his duties and responsibilities, and to help him orientate himself promptly, pending a more complete familiarity with the rules and regulations of the board of education and the superintendent and his staff.

A guidebook permits ready access of any citizen in the community

to such policies as may affect their interests in the school. It becomes a part of the school's public relations program.

Development and Revision of the Handbook. The handbook should be developed and revised by those who are affected by it. The authors believe this is as it should be if a major function of our school is to perpetuate democracy. The frequency of revision will be directly related to the changes that occur in the basic policies. It would be desirable to have a revision each time changes are made in the policy. This, however, may not be a practical thing to do. In any event, review of the contents, and consideration of suggestions for modification, addition, or clarification should be given every three to five years.

The democratic process used in developing the guide is as valuable as the completed document. Staff participation in policy determination is to be desired. Too often the mistake is made by the adoption of a guide, *in toto*, from another district. This procedure superimposes on the staff policies which they had no part in developing. When this is done, it is not surprising if the personnel reacts unfavorably.

Certain steps are essential in the developing of a personnel handbook. The following are suggested steps which might be followed.

First, there must be a need that is keenly felt by someone on the board of education or the school staff. This need should be brought into the open by the superintendent and his professional staff. It is generally agreed that the initiative in this matter is the responsibility of the superintendent and his associates. This in no way means that other members of the staff, through proper channels, could not have a part in the initiation of the preparation of such a guidebook.

Second, extract from the board of education minutes those of the district policies and procedures that have been of a continuing nature. How and by whom this work is to be done will depend to a large extent on the size of the system. The authors believe that it is desirable that this work be done by a committee representing both the staff and the board of education. The usual practice, however, is to have this done by the superintendent or a member of his staff designated by him.

The third step is to develop a tentative draft. This might best be

done by a committee composed of the superintendent, his staff, a representative of the board of education, representatives of the employees, and, where possible, representatives of the P.T.A. and the community. The draft developed by this committee should be comprehensive in nature and should include only those items of basic concern to the whole district.

Fourthly, the draft should be submitted to the board of education for tentative approval.

The fifth step is to submit the tentative material to the various groups of the personnel for examination, especially those areas that affect them directly. For example, the teacher group might concentrate on the portion of the draft that affected their rights, privileges, salaries, and responsibilities. They would also consider student policy. The teachers would not necessarily concern themselves with policies and procedures relating to the business manager, custodian, board of education, and the like, although they might be concerned with them in respect to the manner in which they might be affected by them. The draft, with suggested amendments by the various personnel groups, is then returned to the committee.

In step six, the committee resolves the basic conflicts presented in the suggested amendments. After revision, it is then submitted to the board of education for its further consideration and adoption. Since the handbook is a summary of practices for the general convenience of employees, it cannot be complete in all details and cannot through error or incompleteness of statement restrict the lawful power of the school district or the board of education. It is suggested that the final printed form contain a statement to the effect that

The contents of this handbook should in no way be taken as the basis of, or creating, any contractual rights between the District and any person or employee. It is intended as a summary of present practices compiled for the general convenience of employees. Of necessity it cannot be complete in all detail and cannot through error or incompleteness of statement restrict the lawful powers of the School District and its Board of Education.⁵

The final step is to edit, polish, and publish the final draft. It is usually dated and signed by the members of the board of education and is published at district expense. Because the handbook is to be used by all employees every employee should be supplied with a copy, or a special handbook should be prepared for the different classifications of employees. Certain general information will be the same in each handbook, whereas specific information or policy relating to particular classifications will be different. Copies should likewise be made available to all other interested persons.

Content of the Handbook. The content of the handbook will depend upon whether it is to be an administrative guide or a handbook of policies governing the activities of the employees of the district. In either case, there will be information common to both. The administrative handbook should contain a section dealing particularly with personnel.

One of the most important items common to both types of guide-books, and possibly the most frequently omitted, is a statement of the philosophy of the school system. This might be stated as "goals in education" or as "the creed of the system." The philosophy of one system has been stated as follows:

TO MAKE the needs and interests of the pupil the basis for all decisions
TO BUILD a school program that will never know completion, but will advance continually to meet the changing educational needs

TO BROADEN our educational philosophy and practices so that we shall strive for the development of the whole child rather than the development of academic achievement alone

TO CREATE a personnel that will be known for its efficiency in its work, its pride in the schools, its enthusiasm for the profession and its service to the community⁶

However stated, it is helpful to the employee and to the public to have such a statement included.

Information pertaining to the organization and administration of the school system should be found in either type of handbook. Topics relating to the board of education might include meetings and proce-

dures, board organization, officers of the board, powers of the board, organizational relationships, general responsibility and policies relating to the community. The organization of the system should be described. Such a statement would include purposes and objectives, authorized services, educational divisions and program, and administrative organization, including an organizational chart.

Although the interests and concerns of the employees are broad and varied, some topics will be found in administrative guides that possibly would not logically belong in personnel handbooks. Since there is no clear-cut division between administrative and personnel policies, the reader may find overlapping and duplication. Some of the topics more logically found in administrative handbooks and not in personnel manuals will include fiscal activities, curriculum and teaching, curricular and auxiliary agencies' accounts, use of building, contracts and business matters, transportation of pupils, cafeterias, student accounts, reports, supplies and equipment, maintenance and operation, and information dealing with pupil personnel. The latter item may justify the publication of a separate manual. In the area of pupil personnel information pertaining to transportation, special services to pupils, attendance, student government and organizations, recreation and athletics, and financial provisions should be included.

In handbooks dealing with the policies governing the activities of personnel, one should include information pertaining to personnel selection and assignment, salary schedules, leaves of absence, exchange teaching, reporting procedure for absence of personnel, workmen's compensation, substitute teachers, tenure of employment, retirement, health policies, transfer of personnel, attendance at professional meetings, in-service training and supervision, and special services such as insurance programs, credit union, professional library. The personnel will also be interested in policies relating to discipline of pupils, school property, professional growth, functions, organizational relationships, and policies involving commercial agencies, commercial advertising matter, propaganda, contests, drives, ticket sales, and the like.

Because of the expansion of school systems and the substantial increase in the number of new employees, many manuals for new employees have been prepared. These, in the main, contain much of the

same materials that are found in general handbooks. But because of the emphasis on orientation of new employees, they are sometimes modified to include not only information pertaining to professional relationships, school policies, and employee responsibilities, but also information pertaining to the curriculum including bibliographical material available.⁷ This is designed to help the new employee become a part of the system quickly. Others include information about the community in which they are to live.⁸ In some instances school directory information such as roster of employees, location and phone numbers of school buildings, officers of organizations, and attendance statistics are included in the same publication with administrative or personnel policies and procedures.⁹

The whole field of policies and procedures seems to be in a state of flux. This area will be given high priority among superintendents and boards of education during the next few years. The trend is definitely democratic in nature and community-wide in scope. The organization of guides and handbooks is centering more on services and less on positions and individuals.

Form and Organization of the Handbook. There seems to be no accepted form for the preparation of such publications. The terminology and format of the guide should be warm and friendly.¹⁰ Of those in use today some are printed, others mimeographed, or produced by some other means. In general, the printed booklet will be more satisfactory and in large systems can be produced, because of quantity, rather inexpensively. The process is not too important. The stress should be on readability, attractiveness, warmth, and friendliness. Illustrations¹¹ and pictures¹² can be used effectively.

Some handbooks have been prepared in permanent form, while others like that of Portland, Oregon,¹³ are loose-leaf. In theory, the loose-leaf form might seem the most desirable, but the problem of keeping them currently complete and up-to-date is a difficult one, especially in a large system. Probably the best way is the printed permanent book with frequent revisions, printings, and distribution, such as is done in Kansas City.¹⁴ Some systems use a series of publications. In addition to the rules and regulations of the Cincinnati Board of Education, other manuals designed to cover a specific function or a particular class of employees are used.¹⁵ Entirely separate handbooks dependent upon employee classification are sometimes used, while others employ an all-inclusive publication. There are advantages and disadvantages in each case. The size of publications range from small (pocket) size to letter size. The smaller-size booklets are probably to be recommended since convenience and use are directly related. Large, bulky publications tend to discourage use. For this reason, if for no other, handbooks with general information supplemented by special issues for different employee classification are to be desired.

The authors prefer an organization of the material around related topics with an adequate, detailed index, to other ways of organization of the material in the handbook. Some have found the question-and-answer approach or an alphabetical arrangement by topic to meet their needs satisfactorily.

As long as the form and organization of the material in the handbook encourages its use, is readable, attractive, and meets the needs of those who are to use it, no one should be too concerned. It must be kept in mind, however, that the mere compilation of facts, figures, and information is not enough. To be of value such publications must be *used*. Form, organization, and the mechanics of the publication are important to the extent they make the contents usable. The Denver Personnel Policies Handbook¹⁶ is an example of one of the better personnel guidebooks in use today.

RESEARCH AND REPORTING IN RELATION TO COÖRDINATION

While very closely associated with the problem of communication stressed in the previous section, research and reporting have such an important function in the coördination process that they are being dealt with separately in this text. In the relationship referred to here they are more specialized and somewhat more formal in their application.

At the outset it was stated that a body of personnel policy was necessary to the adequate functioning of the personnel. To a very considerable extent this policy is formed as a result of research and reporting. Proceeding from a common body of fact makes it possible for the public, the board of education, and the staff to effect agreement and therefore coördination that would otherwise be impossible.

Research and reporting in respect to personnel should have certain definite characteristics. It should be completely factual, arranged in an understandable form, and should be periodic and at regular intervals. An opportunity should be provided, through participation in planning, to permit the public, the board of education, and the staff to have a part in determining what should be studied and reported. Too frequently, in the past, such research has been essentially for administrative purposes.

If participation in planning for research and reporting is provided, it may eliminate the circulation in the school system of inadequately supported information that tends to cause disunity. Anticipation of research and reporting needs is much better than waiting until a situation demands the disseminating of facts to correct false rumors or to offset incorrect or poorly prepared reports.

Such a procedure is also an economical one for all concerned, since, if the facts that are needed to fill in the program of research and reporting can be agreed to in advance, clerical and other expense in their collection can be held at a reasonable figure.

Some of the areas to be considered in relation to research and reporting are:

1. Policy statements and changes
2. Studies showing comparisons of salaries and other benefits
3. Studies showing the effects of certain staff policies

4. Age, sex, education, and other vital statistics
5. Results of morale studies
6. Studies of teacher assignments
7. Handbooks of procedures in relation to selection, promotion, grievance action, and dismissal
8. Salary schedules and their application to the employee group
9. Job classifications and descriptions
10. Studies providing information in regard to current issues, i.e., social security payments, and local, state, or federal retirement plans

This whole issue of research and reporting is very closely associated with the problem of organizations in the staff. In some cases, organizations thrive on partial data and facts that have been gathered with the view to supporting their contentions. Adequate research and reporting made generally available could forestall such difficulties in many instances. If conditions of this kind can be remedied, the process of coördination will be improved.

DECISION MAKING AS A DEVICE FOR COÖRDINATION

The previous discussions have stressed the participatory process as one which the authors believe will yield best results in the work of the school personnel. This is not in any sense a lack of recognition of the necessity for administrative leadership, nor is it a failure to recognize the necessity for decision making. In the field of educational administration, of which personnel administration is a part, final decisions must be made either by the chief administrative officer or the board of education, depending upon the nature of the problems involved and recognizing the function of the executive and legislative relationships.

Decision making is an essential part of "group dynamics" and when to say "yes" and when to say "no" or when to defer is one of the most persistent headaches in the whole field of administration. Regardless of how firmly committed he is to democratic administration through the use of the participatory process, the administrator will find that there are two broad categories in the process of decision making, they are (1) decisions which must be made alone and (2) decisions which may be made with the participation of the group. While no hard and fast criterion can be established to divide them into these categories, the following guide lines are important:

1. The time factor
2. The type of people involved
3. The way in which the results will affect the people involved
4. The policy factor—does it involve a new or old policy?

An example of a decision which the administrator might very well have to make alone is one involving ethics in relation to a board of education. To involve his staff might create certain problems of lines of authority and responsibility and create problems for others unnecessarily. Such a situation might involve basic policy concerning the recommendation of a staff member for promotion or disciplinary action.

Many other less basic decisions may have to be made alone. Emergencies arise where there is no time to draw a staff together or where it is uneconomical in terms of time and energy to do so. A decision on the employment of a given staff member also might present such a decision. Perhaps several candidates have been considered and it has been agreed by a group process that two or three persons are desirable candidates. Circumstances, such as availability or opportunity for interviewing, may force a decision alone.

An example of a group-type decision might very well be in the nature of the choice of a text for a given course or grade level, the development of specifications for a given position, but not necessarily the choice of a person for it.

Certain factors are involved in the process of decision making. The following is a convenient grouping that allows the administrator to become aware of the problems that he faces in dealing with a given issue.

1. The individual making the decision must become aware of as many as possible of those behavior alternatives which are relevant to the decision to be made
2. Consideration must be given to the consequences of each alternative
3. A choice among the alternatives must be made: a decision must be made

The administrator can secure help through information from the staff relative to the first two points, and the staff can make recommendations on the third. He cannot always accept this recommendation although he will need to consider carefully the consequences of not doing so. The personal trait that distinguishes the able executive

from less successful ones is his ability to make choices that time and experience prove are satisfactory.

If the administrator wishes to keep the good will and coöperation of the group, upon making a decision contrary to a staff recommendation, he will make his reasons clearly known and make sure they are understood by those persons most vitally concerned. Usually he would do well to make clear that he cannot agree with a recommendation before it is formalized and certainly before it is announced. If he can communicate his reasons for not accepting a recommendation first of all to the group making the recommendation, he will usually strengthen his decision.

The relationship between satisfactory operation of the school system, and the morale of those concerned with its operation, is very closely associated with decision making. How to provide for staff participation in this area of administrative responsibility and at the same time not leave the impression of not being able to make a decision or having someone else do it for him is indeed a process that calls for the highest levels of judgment on the part of the administrator.

The relation of this important administrative attribute to the subject of the chapter is reasonably evident. While decision making is difficult, indecision destroys morale and develops activities that work at cross-purposes and consequently operate as the exact opposite to that which coördination hopes to accomplish, namely, the teamwork to achieve the educational task.

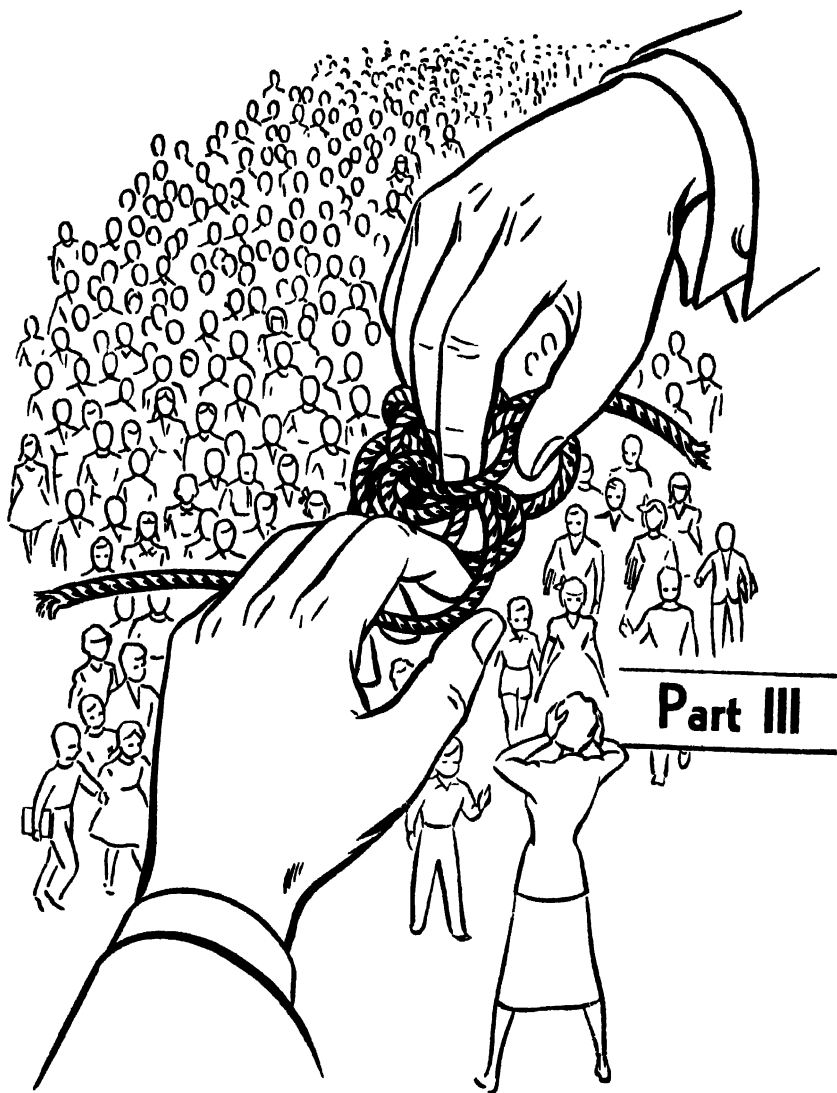
EVALUATING THE METHODS OF COÖRDINATION

In an earlier section of this chapter, five factors were considered in relation to methods of coördination. They were the overall personnel policy, the functions of the personnel officer and office, communication and participation as devices to effect coördination, relationship of reporting and research to the process, and evaluation and appraisal of staff efficiency. It would be useless to attempt to evaluate staff without periodic consideration of the effectiveness of the other four factors. The evaluation of such factors must be both qualitative and quantitative and with sufficient thoroughness to determine whether they are adequately servicing the personnel. The application of evaluative

processes to a staff by an inadequately functioning personnel department is one of the surest ways to affect morale adversely and reduce the degree of coördination. Because of the wide differences in school district size and the personnel services that they afford, no attempt is being made in this text to suggest specific ways and means to effect this evaluation. Sound processes in respect to staff relations, such as use of the participatory process, however, are the surest way to obtain good results.

The Morale Study. One of the real problems for the personnel administrator is to discover the problems in his organization that are reducing efficiency through lowered morale and lack of coördination. Usually the major problems are so apparent that they obtain consideration. Frequently, numerous smaller problems or issues are quite destructive in relation to morale and coördination.

Lately, school systems have been borrowing a device called the *morale study* from industry to discover these problems in their personnel. This device does not provide a solution to the problems, but serves as a means of isolating them so they can be attacked. It has frequently been said that morale is "a lot of little things" and it is to the end of removing the impediments to morale and coördination that such studies are used. This device was used extensively in the Pasadena study that frequently has been referred to. The study in Pasadena covered morale, physical working conditions, belonging and participating, supervisory relationships, policies and practices, pay, and communications. Multiple-choice questions covering a number of items in each area were prepared. By using IBM cards and tabular procedures, numerous impersonal comparisons were made.¹⁷ The morale study's purpose, its impersonality, the way data will be handled and reported, and the steps that are taken to eliminate the issues should be carefully discussed with a staff before its use, in order that its purpose will not be defeated.



Problems in Local Administration

Personnel administration in the public schools involves policies, procedures, and activities that are adopted to procure and develop efficiency and to retain and stimulate the growth of those individuals whose efforts are necessary to the success of the organization.

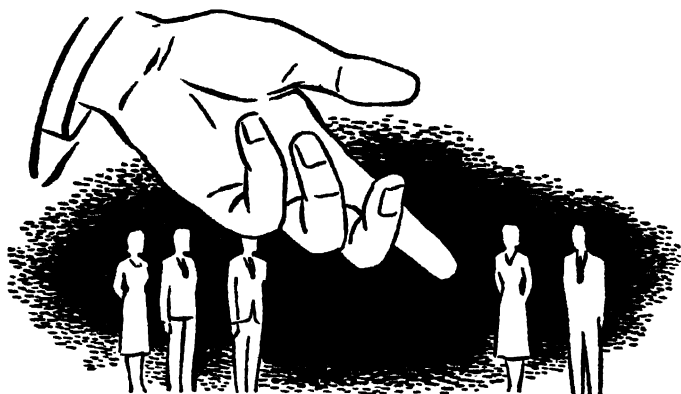
The employee looks at school personnel administration in terms of how his own life is affected by it. He is influenced by his own personal situation and his previous experience. How the administrative policies affect the employee's own conditions of employment is important to the individual, to the community, and to the children. Few administrative policies will please everybody. It should be possible, however, to develop policies that are acceptable to a substantial majority of the staff.

Whether a piecemeal or a comprehensive approach is used in dealing with problems of the personnel program, specific issues must be decided. The practice in other school systems should not control local decisions. The teachers, school authorities, and the community have a natural interest in knowing the typical practice, and, if possible, the trend in recent years.

It is the purpose of the authors, in this section of the text, to consider problems of local personnel administration.

Boards of education, school administrators, and employees can work together to develop the plans needed in each community to implement sound principles of personnel administration. There are few communities where public opinion, if really informed, would not support the board of education in a personnel program designed to select employees on the basis of professional qualifications, pay them adequate salaries, encourage them in professional growth, and treat them fairly throughout their period of service.

It is the hope of the authors that the previous discussion of principles and the treatment of local policies and practices in Part III will assist in the recognition and solution of local personnel problems.



CHAPTER 8

Recruitment and Selection of Staff

It has been said that 50 percent of the entire task of administering a school system has been completed when an efficient staff has been selected and that the major portion of the remaining 50 percent is devoted to the in-service improvement of the staff. Since the selection and recruitment of personnel is of such significance and is primarily the responsibility of local school administration, one might well consider them as a major problem of local personnel administration. Although the authors will deal more with the certificated or teaching personnel, much that applies, especially in regard to principles and human relationships, is also relevant to the nonteaching personnel.

Intelligent administration requires a knowledge and understanding of underlying professional problems. The implications for the selection and recruitment of the personnel and of the preservice education programs and certification requirements materially influence the work of the personnel administrator. Since personnel administration functions chiefly at the local level, such information is being included in this section.

PRESERVICE EDUCATION

The quality of the supply of teachers from which the selection is to be made is materially affected by the program and practices of institutions that prepare teachers. Teachers colleges, colleges of liberal arts, and university schools of education, as well as others, generally use a plan of selective admission or selective retention. The selective admission plan, in use in the better teacher-education institutions, denies entrance to the least promising applicants to the teacher-education curriculum or to the period of professional specialization within the curriculum, whereas selective retention refers to action after the individual has been admitted to the institution or to the curriculum.

It is the author's opinion that a policy of preservice selection is a desirable one in spite of the fact that some persons maintain that such selection of teachers is incompatible with democratic ideals of education. The social importance of the work of the teacher, the responsibility of institutions of higher learning in recruiting and selecting teachers, and an analysis of teacher supply-and-demand data are justifications for such programs. Because of increased enrollment and limited facilities of teacher-preparing institutions' policies of adopting quotas or limiting the number of students admitted to the program of teacher preparation has become common. This practice of control or selection is not only necessary, but is a desirable means for improving the quality of the teaching profession.

BASIS FOR SELECTIVE ADMISSION

Among the most common factors used in selecting those to be admitted to the teacher-education program are: completion of a high school course, scholarship in high school, rank in the high school class, and completion of certain prescribed courses in the high school program. Most teacher-preparing institutions require high school graduation with a scholastic standing of average or above. Recommendations from such persons as the high school principal and teachers are also sought. Other controls used are examinations administered by the institution, including intelligence tests, scholastic tests, teacher aptitude tests, reading tests, personality tests, health examinations, and speech tests.

The primary selection is made at the time of college entrance, but in some instances a further selective process operates prior to admission to the period of professional specialization. When such a plan is in operation, the pattern of the college courses completed, intelligence, personality, subject matter, English usage, contemporary affairs examinations, health, and speech may be considered.

Without a doubt, some programs of preservice selection have been modified as a result of World War II during the period of extreme teacher shortage. Some think of the teacher education curriculum as being limited to pedagogical courses supplemental to an academic program of liberal arts and appropriate subject-matter specialization. The authors maintain that the teacher education curriculum should include programs of general education, subject-matter specialization, and adequate professional courses to insure a thorough knowledge of the methods to be employed and the children to be taught.

CERTIFICATION

In the American federal system, public education is a function of the states. The several states have prescribed the conditions under which persons may be certificated to teach in the public schools. The authority to issue certificates has moved, in general, from numerous town or township officials, to county superintendents, and then, to state departments of education. The "state system" in which authorities of the state, such as the superintendent of public instruction, or the state board of education, issue all certificates and retain control over the entire matter of teacher certification, was in effect in only three states in 1898, but currently this system is in use in all states since Massachusetts, in 1911, enacted for the first time a state-wide teacher certification law which vested broad authority in the State Board of Education.

The stimulation for concentrating the authority for certification came from teachers who wanted the profession to have a higher type

of certificate than was then issued by the local authorities, and who hoped for a professional evaluation of persons desiring to teach. The local governing authorities were laymen or small-salaried officials having interests in fields other than education. In many instances they permitted social, political, and religious considerations to influence their judgments of candidates for certificates. As the authority to certificate was transferred from local officials to state boards or commissions, there was increasing recognition of the responsibilities for issuing teachers certificates, and the desirability of professionally prepared persons who could serve as teachers.

BASIS FOR CERTIFICATION

The shifting bases for evaluating a candidate have been, first, personal interview or personal acquaintance; second, results from oral or written examinations composed by local, and, later, state authorities; and, finally, credentials from a college or teacher-preparing institution. Recent reports indicate that in all states, certificates are issued upon the basis of college credit, and in a number of states, upon an examination as well. Certification by unstandardized tests has been used most frequently for elementary school teachers, although no state issues certificates by examination alone. The use of unstandardized examinations is a supplementary method which, all too frequently, has been used as a substitute for proper preparation. Examinations are more commonly used for obtaining positions in large cities than for certification.

The requirements for obtaining a certificate have increased in quality and quantity. Many of the earlier requirements for teaching simply stated that the candidates must possess "education and a good moral character." Hundreds of different kinds of certificates are issued, and the variety of the requirements is correspondingly large. Some are general and apply to teaching any subject or grade in elementary or high school; others apply only to specific subjects or grades. The average amount of formal education possessed by teachers or prospective teachers has increased. All states require some professional preparation.²

For most certificates in administration and supervision, four years of

² *Ibid.*, p. 3.

college work plus specialized preparation in administration are required. About half of the states require some graduate work for administrative or supervisory certificates.

A minimum age of eighteen years is required in 30 states, and 24 states and the District of Columbia require proof of good health. In most states, the teacher is required to be a citizen of the United States or to have declared his intention of becoming a citizen, and an oath of allegiance to the United States or to a state constitution is stipulated as a regulation. Good moral character is a statutory requisite in about two-thirds of the states.

INTERSTATE COÖPERATION IN CERTIFICATION

Reciprocity in teacher certification, although more generally discussed than practiced by states, is gaining ground and seems to be more than a distant and future ideal. Most important, the implementations of interstate certification have highlighted not merely the question of adjustment between state law and educational theory and practice, but also the growing respect for teacher education institutions and the credentials of their graduates.

While the problem is generally important and serious on a state and national basis, certain regional administrative units may be more directly affected. The need for working out plans of interstate coöperation in certification has been accentuated by rapidly growing areas and is closely related to the supply of competent personnel.

In sixteen states had requirements probably designed to eliminate competition from out-of-state teachers. Currently, reciprocity compacts for the certification of teachers have been entered into by 39 states.³ This change was undoubtedly facilitated by the fact that states have vested broad powers in central state education agencies to prescribe and administer certification requirements. In general, it is believed that unrestricted movement of teachers between states is desirable. The sentiment for complete reciprocity is growing. The North Central Association has found that members of the profession in its territory, in general, approve the principle of reciprocity.⁴

PERIOD OF VALIDITY

Certificates granted by local authorities in the past were issued for very short periods, usually no longer than one year. The period of validity still varies greatly in length, but the usual range is from three to five years. Although in thirty-five states issued life certificates, the practice is rapidly falling into disfavor. In its place, a conditional life certificate requiring continued in-service training has been suggested as a means of affording teachers a secure professional status, and, at the same time, assuring students well-prepared teachers.

BASIS FOR REVOCATION

Most certificates may be revoked for certain specific reasons, such as immorality, negligence, incompetency, violation of contract, intemperance, violation of law, and unprofessional conduct. Some states list only general causes. Where specific causes are listed "the general principle is that a certificate cannot be revoked for any causes other than those specified."⁵ The teacher is usually given the right to appeal to higher officials to protect his interests and, as a rule, the authorities which have the power to grant certification also have the power to revoke them for any reason given in the statutes.

TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM AND CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS

There is a relationship between teacher education and certification. Slightly more than twelve hundred institutions of higher learning in the United States are approved by state boards or departments of education for certification purposes. Although coöperation between certification authorities and institutions of higher learning is vitally important in adjusting the supply to the demand and in assuring proper teacher preparation, an adequate plan of coöperation has been achieved in few states. The needed unity, Frazier states, has been increasingly realized by "centralization of certification of teacher education in the state board of education, and voluntary coöperation by the

certification office and the teacher education institutions in raising or maintaining standards.”⁶

In an address to Colorado leaders in education, Stinnett, when speaking in regard to basic principles of certification said:

While there are no clearly defined guiding principles for the establishment and operation of a state certification program which have received unanimous agreement throughout the country, there are some definite trends which I think would be apropos to your task here. Some of these principles may be enumerated as follows:

1. The authority to prescribe requirements based upon the preparation necessary to assure a fully qualified teacher
2. Should prescribe requirements based upon the preparation necessary to assure a fully qualified teacher
3. Provide for a minimum number of certificates to be issued
4. Provide for broad and balanced preparation in general education, professional education, and specialized education
5. Be non-retroactive in application
6. Be simply stated and easily administered
7. Should provide for comparable levels of preparation of elementary and secondary teachers
8. Should be coöperatively planned to the democratic participation of all elements of the constituency upon whom the requirements will be enforced
9. Should encourage continuous professional growth
10. Should encourage experimentation in teacher-education institutions
11. Should respect the individuality and integrity of teacher-education institutions
12. Should avoid detailed and extreme specificity
13. Should provide for initial certification of a probationary nature and continuing certification for those who have successfully passed the probationary period and met the state's established standard of minimum preparation for a fully qualified teacher, rather than to issue permanent or life certificates
14. Should encourage the free movement of qualified teachers across the state line⁷

Neither the educators nor the laymen are satisfied with the requirements for teacher certification. Current practices become obsolete in a changing society. The teacher-education centers and certification agencies, with the assistance of the profession, must together spell out in detail the requirements necessary to assure minimum competency as a public school teacher. As this is done the quality and numbers of the teaching profession will improve and increase.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND

The effectiveness of the schools, as the authors have repeatedly stated, depends upon their adequate staffing by competent teachers. Such staffing is possible only if the supply of qualified teachers in each category of teaching is sufficient to meet the need, and if school officials demand qualified teachers in filling vacancies.

Unsatisfactory relationships that have existed in the United States between the supply of teachers available and the demand for their services during most of the time since 1910, have caused deep concern for the improvement of these conditions. In times of critical shortages, there was active public demand "that something be done" to make a sufficient number of satisfactory teachers available; during periods when thousands of well-prepared teachers were unable to find any kind of teaching employment, there was general dissatisfaction with the situation.

In general, the problem of supply and demand in teaching involves the number of vacancies occurring, the number of qualified persons available for each vacancy, and the extent to which qualifications are considered by employers.

FACTORS AFFECTING NUMBER OF VACANCIES

The number of vacancies occurring depends upon the number of positions existing, including "new positions" because of increased enrollments and the rate at which teachers are separated from these positions. In turn, the number of positions existing depends upon birth rate, compulsory attendance laws, number of years of attendance per pupil, number of types of offerings, and the pupil-teacher ratio. This ratio is influenced by class size and by the number of classes assigned

per teacher. The rate of separation depends upon employment practices in teaching and in nonteaching areas which are competing with teaching for personnel. In the schools, changes in income, in requirements set up for teachers, in retirement regulations, in policies regarding married women, in working conditions, in demands for further preparation, and in practices as to sick leave and leaves of absence in comparison with those in other available occupations, all influence the teacher in regard to either remaining in or separating from the profession.

TEACHER SUPPLY

The supply of teachers to fill the vacancies that occur come from:

1. The present corps of competent, adequately prepared teachers
2. The present corps of promising but not yet adequately prepared teachers
3. The excess of trained teachers who do not find employment in their major fields
4. Former teachers of demonstrated competence and with adequate preparation
5. Former teachers with only inadequate preparation
6. Current college graduates now completing requirements for teaching certificates according to the prevailing requirements of the various states
7. College graduates without any professional preparation of any kind for teaching
8. College students now pursuing preservice programs of teacher education
9. College students not now contemplating teaching
10. High school graduates of recent years
11. Current high school students

Another source of supply following the war years was the returning veteran, many of whom had college preparation before entering service. Some of this group had made no vocational adjustment before entering the armed forces. Many have fine qualifications and offer fine possibilities to recoup some of the mounting losses of men and women in all types of school services.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

The elementary school enrollments have been increasing due to the gradual increase in birth rate. This rise in enrollment which followed a twenty-year period of an almost static school population is the beginning of a critical era for public education. It is already clear that the overall dimensions of the American school system are rapidly assuming an expansion of fully 50 percent. The very nature of the responsibility—local, state, and national—must be reconceived. Needs, both in terms of physical plant and qualified personnel, must be viewed in an entirely new framework. Financial support must be cast in new proportions and superior young men and women in greatly increased numbers must immediately enter soundly conceived programs of preparation for instructional service at all levels.

This problem is no different from any other aspect of American education. It must be approached from all levels, the local, state, and national. There was a wide range in the increase in the average birth rate among the states (115 to 11 percent); only a few approximated the 50 percent average increase for the period. Certain states attract a constant flow of immigrants whose school-age children further increase the educational responsibility of the state receiving them, and lighten the burden of the state sending them.

As the task mounts for the community, the state, and the nation, so the opportunities improve for desirable, permanent employment. Teaching takes on new proportions for the young person soon to choose a life vocation. School administrators, anticipating the future needs of their respective communities and realizing that at least two high school seniors must choose teacher education to produce one teacher four years later, can begin to see their responsibilities more clearly. Guidance workers and student counselors, at both the high school and college levels, have golden opportunities. It is the responsibility of every person interested in the continuance of the American school system, especially the members of the teaching profession, to present the facts. This is today's number one problem, the solution of which must begin at the local level.

RECRUITMENT INTO THE PROFESSION

One immediate problem of recruitment is that of finding candidates for positions actually available. However, long before this local immediate problem must be faced, an important part of the recruiting process has been completed. The selective admission and retention of prospective teachers by the colleges and universities has had its effect as well as the counseling and guidance programs of the institutions of higher learning. Local school systems have a responsibility in this phase of recruitment.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE PROFESSION

The opportunity and responsibility of members of the profession who work directly with youth is tremendous. We should always be on the alert to identify individuals who show interest and promise and by words and actions seek the entrance of these people into our profession. No other profession has as good an opportunity to direct the selection of its members as has the teaching profession. By beginning early, even at the elementary level, this process of observation, encouragement, and reporting from one teacher to another as the pupil pursues his elementary and secondary schooling, more of the promising high school graduates will prepare for teaching. Herlinger, in an attempt to analyze reasons why high school students do not enter the teaching profession, and to devise remedial measures, reported that after a short program of counseling designed to correct erroneous impressions with respect to teaching, 37 students in a graduating class of 258 entered teacher training. Not only did this activity result in more persons becoming interested in the teaching profession, but the quality of those recruited was high. Half of the students interested ranked 66th or higher in the class of 258 and the median IQ for the group was 121.¹⁰

The upperclassmen in the Indianapolis schools are given an opportunity to practice the art of teaching through cadet teaching programs. These programs get good pupil support because credit for the

work is given and valuable pre-vocational information and experiences are provided. Not only are good teachers seen in action but the pupils act. The would-be teachers lead current-events discussion, tell or read stories to classes, make and use flashcards, prepare materials, and check papers. They are considered as observers and participants in the program rather than "helpers."¹ These illustrate the type of activities and results that might be expected from a *continuous program* from the primary grades through high school graduation.

ATTITUDES INFLUENCING RECRUITMENT

Attitudes of the members of the profession, citizens in the community, and high school students toward the profession has a marked influence on the problem of recruitment.

In the N.E.A. Research Division reported that of the women teachers more than a third of the urban and nearly half of the rural were certain that if they were given the chance to start over again they would again be teachers, while only 1 percent of the urban and 2 percent of the rural said that "I seldom enjoy teaching." There was only a slight difference between the replies of elementary and secondary women teachers. The report on men teachers provided a less encouraging picture. Less than half of either the urban or rural men indicated that they, given the chance to start over, would again choose the teaching profession. It is interesting to note that among men as well as women, that 1 in 8 found teaching a "thrilling" and "adventurous" occupation. Table 6, page 196, gives comparisons on the attitudes of teachers toward their profession.

A teacher is likely to give his best efforts to teaching and as a result affect positively the recruitment of youth into the profession when, given a fresh start, he would again become a teacher; when he feels that he would receive a fair deal in his present position if difficulties arose; when he enjoys teaching so much that he is sure he prefers it to other kinds of work. Conversely, a teacher who is sorry that he is a teacher, who would expect unfair treatment in case of difficulty, and who does not enjoy teaching is unlikely to be giving his best abilities

TABLE 6. Attitudes Toward Teaching

Questions Asked of Teachers 1	Percent of Teachers Indicating Each Opinion Urban Teachers				Percent of Teachers Indicating Each Opinion Rural Teachers			
	Elementary Women 2	Secondary Women 3	Secondary Men 4	All Urban ^a 5	Elementary Women 6	Secondary Women 7	Secondary Men 8	All Rural ^a 9
Suppose you could go back to your college days and start over again; in view of your present knowledge, would you become a teacher?								
Certainly would not become a teacher	7%	7%	11%	8%	4%	3%	16%	5%
Probably would not become a teacher	11	12	20	13	7	11	21	10
Chances about even for and against	16	16	21	17	15	13	18	15
Probably would become a teacher	26	26	22	25	25	27	12	24
Certainly would become a teacher	40	39	26	37	49	46	33	46
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
If you had some cause for dissatisfaction in your present teaching position, what would be your chances of getting a hearing and a square deal?								
Very little chance	9%	10%	7%	9%	10%	10%	12%	10%
Poor	5	6	8	6	6	3	3	5
Chances about even	16	17	17	17	13	24	23	17
Fair	21	21	25	22	19	22	26	21
Good	49	46	43	46	52	41	36	47
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Do you enjoy teaching?								
I seldom enjoy teaching	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	4%	1%	2%
I usually enjoy teaching but I probably could have learned to like some other work as well	33	30	41	34	30	33	55	33
I enjoy teaching and doubt that I could have learned to like any other work as well	16	16	14	15	18	20	12	18
I enjoy teaching enough to be sure that I prefer it to other work	39	40	31	38	39	30	25	35
Teaching is to me (quoting a famous teacher) "the most adventurous, the most exciting, the most thrilling of professions."	11	13	13	12	12	13	7	12
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

to the job of teaching and would undoubtedly affect negatively the encouragement of entrance into the profession. The positive point of view by the administrator will be reflected in the teacher's attitude.

Young people of the highest quality are likely to be attracted to a profession that stands high in community regard, that gives opportunity for initiative and independence of thought and action, and that makes it possible to maintain a comfortable standard of living, to marry, and live the normal life of an American citizen. Some communities are helping to recruit teachers by establishing such conditions for the teaching profession. A recent article in the press discussing

"Which is more important—the pay your job brings, or the prestige it gives," quoted from a study made by Mrs. Vara Merritt Smith, a graduate student in psychology at North Carolina State College, reported "that prestige comes first. Teachers, perhaps the lowest-paid profession, rated second only to physicians in prestige!"¹²

Motives which seem significantly to influence students to enter the teaching profession are interest in subject, fondness of children and for teaching, and the possibility of doing good. Such selfish motives as salary, long holidays, easy work, securing a job, and improving social position are less significant. Even less influential are loans or grants to study, parent's wish, nothing better to do, and example of an admired person.¹³

In the opinions of students, the wish to become a teacher was formed at an early age, by most between the ages of fourteen and seventeen, somewhat before completing their secondary education.¹⁴

AGENCIES THAT AFFECT RECRUITMENT

A discussion of the problem of recruitment would not be complete without at least mentioning the activities of professional organizations. Phi Delta Kappa, Delta Kappa Gamma, Kappa Delta Pi, and other professional organizations are constantly presenting the problem of recruitment before its members and preparing materials for distribution among prospective high school and college students. State education associations all conduct such programs. A recent poster distributed by the Maine State Teachers Association, "I Want a Teacher"—a photograph of a baby's face was the poster's outstanding characteristic—proved to be extremely effective.

In general, the activities through organizations of this type have been by means of printed materials: booklets, leaflets, and posters. In using this device successfully, considerations should be given to the differences between boys and girls, urban and rural students, and

possibly to some extent to the differences of persons of different states. Factual and descriptive material may be effective with those who are about to make a final decision concerning their life work, while attractive posters of children and well-written personal-interest appeals may serve better in attracting prospective teachers to the profession. In the opinion of the authors, the first step in recruitment is to stimulate an emotional interest in the profession rather than supplying complete information about it.

The Future Teachers of America program, which grew out of the Horace Mann Centennial in a project of local and state education organizations and the National Education Association. F.T.A. chapters (college groups) are training schools in professional and civic relationships for the preparation of leaders.

The purpose of F.T.A. (clubs) in the high schools is exploratory, prevocational, and character forming.

SELECTION OF THE PERSONNEL

General problems such as recruitment into the profession and certification are the responsibility of all members of the profession while the locating, selection, and employment of candidates is the responsibility of local personnel administration.

PRACTICES IN RECRUITING

Practices used in recruiting applicants for teaching positions can be classified into six groups: (1) use of teacher-placement bureaus; (2) direct application by the candidates; (3) inquiries at conventions and similar gatherings; (4) coöperation between school systems; (5)

published announcements of positions to be filled; and (6) other practices, such as obtaining names through members of the staff, direct recruitment on campuses of teacher-preparing institutions, and lists from county superintendent's office.

Teacher-placement services are available through college and university bureaus, professional organizations, state departments of education, state education associations, commercial agencies, and other governmental channels such as state employment services. There has been a growing tendency for education institutions to assume greater responsibility for such services. College and university placement programs are essentially different from the ordinary placement services. State, federal, organizational, and commercial facilities are set up primarily to secure employment, whereas the college and university function includes constant effort toward improvement of teaching with follow-up services and the furnishing of data as a basis for curriculum adjustments and guidance of students.

It is an accepted principle that school officials should actively seek desirable candidates for the teaching staff. The most common source used, regardless of the size of the system, are the teacher-placement bureaus, especially those operated by colleges and universities, and the applications sent voluntarily by candidates. While the large city systems, where salaries are above average and where living conditions are desirable, may be able to secure sufficient competent personnel from applications voluntarily sent in, the smaller systems must look for prospects. These systems use placement services other than college and university bureaus, inquiries at conventions and similar gatherings, and coöperation with other systems more extensively than the larger systems. However, for cities over 500,000 population, published announcements of positions to be filled are more effective; and for cities of 100,000 to 500,000 population, applications sent in voluntarily by candidates prove to be more productive. Securing names from college placement departments is becoming more valuable while dependence upon voluntary applications is declining. Practices used in recruiting applicants and their effectiveness for different size cities are summarized in Tables 7 and 8, both of which are printed on the following page.

**RESPONSIBILITY FOR SELECTION AND APPOINTMENT OF
TEACHERS**

Once the "pool" of applicants has been secured, the problem of selection becomes specific: "Who should be responsible for selection of personnel?" The legal responsibility for the employment of teachers ordinarily rests with the board of education, although in a few states the board may delegate authority to the superintendent. Some laws prescribe that employment must follow nominations by the superintendent. More often it is policy of boards of education that determines the nomination by the superintendents. In most instances, local rules and regulations follow the best practice and delegate the responsibility for the nomination of candidates to the superintendent. One basic principle in the selection of teachers has emerged from experience and study in school administration: "The responsibility of nominating the school personnel rests with the superintendent of schools or his delegated representative; the power of appointment rests with the board of education."¹⁶

The principle of appointment by the board upon the nomination of the superintendent of schools rests on several basic assumptions:

1. That the superintendent has been chosen by the board of education to serve as its professional executive
2. That the superintendent is professionally competent to select personnel and that he is informed and equipped to follow procedures most likely to secure the best teachers that the local school system could hope to obtain
3. That the individual members of the board of education have accepted the policy of absolutely refusing to use their positions on the board as a means of advantage to their friends or families

In all except the smallest systems, the superintendent will need professional assistance in the performance of this function. This might range from an assistant superintendent in charge of personnel to committees of classroom teachers and principals. The authors wish to emphasize that the use of professional assistance is not delegating

authority or responsibility. It makes no difference whether or not professional assistance is provided through an assistant superintendent or personnel director; the recommendation for appointment is still the prerogative and duty of the superintendent.

The principle of appointment by the board of education on the nomination by the superintendent in no way interferes with the board's

TABLE 9. Division of Responsibility Between Board of Education and Superintendent in Nomination and Appointment of Teachers

Practice 1	Population Range of Cities						Total Number 8	Percent 9
	500,000 and over 2	100,000 to 499,999 3	30,000 to 99,999 4	10,000 to 29,999 5	5,000 to 9,999 6	2,500 to 4,999 7		
A. The superintendent (with such help as he may require from the administrative staff) nominates individual persons for appointment to specific positions; the board makes the appointment	100%	92%	91%	87%	85%	79%	1318	84%
B. The superintendent nominates two or more qualified persons for appointment to a given position; the board makes the final choice and appointment	0	0	2	5	9	13	126	8
C. The board of education or a committee of the board selects and appoints teachers without official participation by the superintendent	0	0	1	2	1	1	18	1
D. The superintendent of schools selects and appoints teachers without official action by the board of education	0	5	6	4	7	7	95	6
E. Other procedure ^a	0	3	0	2	0	0	10	1
Number of cities reporting	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	—	100%
	16	77	238	342	377	517	1567	

exercise of its legal authority for setting standards for qualifications of teachers and for stating the policies to be followed in selecting personnel.

Nearly every superintendent knows that this is the approved procedure. It is the general practice. Where deviations from this principle and practice are made, they are chiefly found in the cities below 30,000 population. In such cases, the most common practices are for the board to make the final choice and appointment from two or more nominees made by the superintendent, and for the superintendent to select and appoint without official action of the board. See Table 9 above.

APPRAISAL OF CANDIDATES

It is the belief of the authors that the selection, appraisal, and resultant appointment of personnel should not be based upon the personal judgment of one person or upon a very limited bit of information but should be based upon the opinions of several individuals and upon a wide variety of information.

The common procedures of appraisal of candidates listed in order of frequency of use are:

1. Personal interviews with applicants
2. Information and opinion from persons named as references
3. Formal application blanks
4. Transcripts of college preparation
5. Proof of legal certification for positions sought
6. Verification of experience records reported by applicants
7. Observation of classroom work of applicant
8. Required physical examination of applicants
9. Required written examination
10. Other practices which might include: required chest X-ray, birth certificate, informal letter of application, oral examinations, and check with persons not given as references. See Table 10, page 204.

These procedures will lead to the establishment of lists of eligible candidates. Such a list may be either formal or informal.

Certain trends and changes in procedures used in electing teachers are worth noting. In the last ten to twenty years there has been a decline in the use of observation of classroom work of the candidates and use of eligibility lists as practices in teacher selection, while at the same time the requiring of transcripts of credit, verification of experience, and especially the requiring of physical examinations has increased.

Since it is almost a universal practice to hold personal interviews with applicants, two questions arise: "Who does the interviewing?" and "What purposes are served by the interview?" It is quite common for the superintendents to carry a heavy load of this work themselves. More than half of the superintendents in the larger cities with the probable exception of those over one-half million in population par-

ticipate in the interviewing of candidates. This practice becomes more common as the size of the system decreases. In addition to interviews by the superintendent, in more than half of the school systems the principal or other supervisory officer to whom the teacher may be responsible also interviews the candidate. In systems of 30,000 or over

TABLE 10. Usual Practices in Selecting Teachers

Practice 1	Population Range of Cities						Total Number 8 Percent 9	
	500,000 and over 2	100,000 to 499,999 3	30,000 to 99,999 4	10,000 to 29,999 5	5,000 to 9,999 6	2,500 to 4,999 7		
Hold personal interviews with applicants	100%	100%	100%	99%	100%	99%	1609	100%
Collect information and opinion from persons named as references	94	90	94	89	89	80	1402	87
Have applicants fill out a formal application blank	100	100	97	94	86	73	1382	86
Require applicants to submit transcripts of college preparation	100	73	68	61	61	63	1031	64
Require proof of legal certification for position sought	81	76	60	51	48	50	853	53
Verify experience records reported by applicants	94	74	50	42	48	48	789	49
Observe classroom work of applicant	44	31	42	42	40	35	624	39
Establish lists of eligible candidates	88	59	33	27	30	25	485	30
Require applicants to submit to a physical examination.	100	65	46	33	17	19	460	28
Given by the school physician or other physician approved by board	81	19	12	8	3	3	118	7
Given by any licensed physician	19	41	32	22	13	15	319	20
Status of examiner not specified	0	5	2	3	1	1	23	1
Require applicants to take written examinations	69	24	5	1	1	1	51	3
Other practice ^a	13	3	3	6	2	4	62	4
Number of cities reporting	16	78	238	344	394	545	1615	---

in population, the use of an assistant superintendent or personnel officer and committees of school officers is not uncommon. The use of committees of the school staff, including classroom teachers, is generally used in the very largest systems—those in cities over 500,000 population.

Although the practice indicates that the use of one or two persons to evaluate and select personnel is most common, it is the opinion of

the authors that a wider participation of the staff is highly desirable regardless of the size of the system.

"What are the purposes served by the interview?" The interview is believed to serve a number of different purposes, with a majority believing that it provides:

1. An opportunity for a general appraisal of the candidate's personality
2. An opportunity to gain some insight into the candidate's educational philosophy and professional outlook
3. An opportunity to evaluate the candidate's voice and physical characteristics
4. An opportunity to learn of the candidate's ambitions and plans for the future
5. An opportunity to get information on the candidate's education and experience

Other uses of the personal interview might be: to provide an opportunity for an oral examination on the subject matter that the candidate proposes to teach; to check on oral English; to ascertain the candidate's outside interests, abilities, and activities; to acquaint the applicant with the town, the system, and persons under whom he will work; to secure information on family backgrounds and responsibilities.

The use of written examinations as a requirement in teacher selection has remained fairly static and, insofar as all school systems are concerned, is not extensively used. However, it is used in a number of the largest cities in which many thousands of teachers are employed. Such examinations, when used, are generally prepared by an outside agency, although the use of locally prepared materials, alone or in combination with materials prepared by an outside agency, are not uncommon. In most cases where an outside agency has been used, it has been the National Teacher Examinations, a project administered by the Educational Testing Service of Princeton, New Jersey. According to David G. Ryans, the values of the National Teacher Examinations include:

1. The provision of a common scale for evaluating professional preparation which was independent of institutional variations in standards and marking practices

2. The maintenance of consistent selection standards from year to year facilitated by the equating of the annual forms of the examinations
3. The improvement of teacher assignments made possible by comparable estimates of a candidate's preparation for several assignments¹⁷

It is generally believed that when local and state teacher examinations, formerly used as a basis for certification, was replaced by certification on the basis of college credits, a step forward was taken. During the time that the use of examinations as a selective device was being reduced, the use of civil service examinations for nonteaching employees began. Modern civil service programs still largely depend upon competitive written examinations. Without a doubt many improvements in their use have been developed.

Some groups have indicated great concern over the use of this type of examination, feeling that it may discourage the use of other selection procedures, that it may encourage uniformity in teacher-education curriculums, and may be used in arbitrary fashions not contemplated by the sponsors. If these tests are used as only one part of teacher selection, as the authors recommend, these fears are probably not well founded.

After all the facts have been assembled about an applicant, the task still remains of deciding whether or not such a candidate is to be recommended for appointment. In small school systems where the superintendent interviews all of the candidates, the problem is difficult enough, and it is even more complex in the large cities where hundreds of applicants and several interviewers are involved. Some employing officials appear able to select competent teachers and yet seem to follow no definite plan of appraisal other than to make intuitive judgments by methods that could not be described to another person. Selections made on a "hunch," or conclusion reached without resorting to powers of reason, may prove to be disastrous or at least embarrassing to the personnel administrator at some future time. More success might be enjoyed if administrators based their choices among several candidates upon an orderly array of the factors to be considered. Such a

listing of qualifications forms the basis for establishing an eligibility list.

Some superintendents, even in the small systems, find it worth-while to set up a ranked list of eligible candidates for each type of position, with the order of preference indicated from first to last. Others carry the process of evaluation only to the point of definite rejection or approval. This method produces unranked lists of approved candidates.

The technical process of making up a rated list, by combining numerical ratings on different measures of ability, has been criticized as an artificial treatment of human values. Examiners who set up the lists are ready to admit the possibility of error, but they believe that it is better to have an orderly review of all factors with a definite weighting for each, than to risk an even greater injustice to an individual candidate by failing to consider all his qualifications.¹⁸

STANDARDS FOR ELIGIBILITY

Earlier in the chapter we have pointed out that the principle of appointment by the board of education upon recommendation of the superintendent in no way interferes with the board's exercise of its legal authority for setting standards for qualifications of teachers and for stating the policies to be followed in selecting personnel. These are grave responsibilities, for unwise policies of the board may make it impossible to base selection on professional factors alone. Discriminations against nonlocal residents, against married women, or against members of certain races, faiths, or political parties may narrow the selection so that candidates of little professional promise may have to be nominated.

Whatever the policies are, they should be known to the public and should *be applied impartially to all* candidates. The higher the standards and the more truly they are based upon professional qualifications, the better the educational service that may be expected.

When local boards of education set their own standards of eligibility for appointment, they do so within the framework of state law. Except in a few large cities, the local board may not appoint a teacher who

TABLE 12. Educational Requirements for Appointment As Teachers,

Number of years of preparation required beyond high-school graduation, by type of teaching	Population Range of Cities						Total	
	500,000 and over	100,000 to 49,999	30,000 to 99,999	10,000 to 29,999	5,000 to 9,999	2,500 to 4,999	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Elementary school teaching:								
One year	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	"	2	"
Two years	0	7	8	14	20	27%	281	18%
Three years	0	4	4	6	9	11	122	8
Four years	100	88	88	80	71	62	1136	74
Five years or more	0	1	0	0	"	"	4	"
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	—	100%
Number of cities reporting	16	76	225	333	379	516	1545	—
Junior high school teaching:								
One year	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0	0%
Two years	0	0	0	1	3	6	34	2
Three years	0	0	1	2	4	4	38	3
Four years	100	94	94	94	91	87	1214	91
Five years or more	0	6	5	3	2	3	47	4
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	—	100%
Number of cities reporting	14	69	200	309	323	418	1333	—
Senior high school teaching:								
One year	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0	0%
Two years	0	0	0	0	1	1	5	"
Three years	0	0	0	0	1	"	4	"
Four years	63	80	85	90	92	90	1317	89
Five years or more	37	20	15	10	6	9	149	10
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	—	100%
Number of cities reporting	16	76	225	331	353	474	1475	—

14 percent. Large cities are more likely to enforce experience requirements than the smaller ones. The National Education Association Salary Committee almost thirty years ago expressed its forceful opposition to such requirements in a statement that is equally pertinent today:

It is customary for some cities to require teaching experience as a prerequisite to election to teach. This practice is approved by tradition. There is no other justification for it except that cities making this requirement usually pay salaries enough higher than those other places to enable them to enforce this regulation. It is not desirable and should not be necessary

for the school authorities of one district to insist that young and untrained teachers secure their first experience at the expense of the children of another district. If all teachers were trained in standard normal schools or training classes where they had ample guidance and supervision, there would be no excuse except selfishness to justify a requirement of experience elsewhere before a teacher is elected to a teaching position. . . . The large cities with the attraction of their higher salaries are the worst offenders in the matter of requiring previous experience.¹⁹

As the period of required preparation for teachers grows longer, and as the transiency in the profession decreases, age limits for appointment of persons as new teachers will merit less attention than in former years. The fact that the large majority of cities no longer require definite age limits seems to indicate a desirable flexibility of policy. The requirement of college graduation as a prerequisite for appointment eliminates most questions about minimum age at which a teacher may be employed.

Age Considerations. While the usual preference in selecting teachers is among the younger applicants who give promise of a long period of growth and service, there are many cases where an experienced teacher of great ability can fill a position satisfactorily.

One reason for fixing a maximum age for appointment is the fact that the joint-contributory retirement systems in effect in many places assume a long period of years for the accumulation of credits and funds from the employee. A person who enters the system beyond the age of 40 or 45 years makes contributions for too brief a period to build up the necessary reserve or does not always have a sufficient number of years of service in the new retirement system for an adequate retirement benefit. This is the result especially when a teacher's past service has been in another system and no out-of-system service credit is granted. Of course, no such problem would occur if the changes in employment were within one state with a state-wide retirement program. There is little variation among cities regardless of size in the minimum age limit. The median for all cities will be close to 21 years. The variation among the many school systems in regard to the upper

limit is more pronounced, with the median probably between 40 and 45 years of age.

MARRIAGE, LOCAL RESIDENCE AND MINORITY GROUPS AS RELATED TO ELIGIBILITY

"No discrimination because of race, color, residence, economic or marital status, religion or nonsubversive political beliefs." This principle is stated in the Platform of the National Education Association. In many communities this principle is violated at some point.

MARITAL STATUS

Marital status, in particular, is still a basis for discrimination in a majority of the city school systems of the United States. While more than 80 percent of the school systems of the nation are currently employing married women as new, full-time regular teachers, about half of these also give preferences to single women if the qualifications are equal. Much progress has been made in removing the discriminations against married women in the last ten years. Apparently the extreme shortage of teachers during this time added to the long continued pressure of the profession itself in persuading hundreds of local boards of education to remove the barriers against the employment of married women.

The restrictions still existing against the appointment of married teachers are not mere matters of personal preference or administrative discretion by the superintendent of schools, but rest on officially adopted rules of the boards of education in many school systems. In general, the policies in regard to the use of married women have been officially adopted by the boards of education. Progress is being made. Marriage is less of an impediment to appointment today than it was ten years ago.

APPOINTMENT OF LOCAL RESIDENTS

In principle "residence" should not be a factor one way or the other in selecting teachers. In practice, however, local residents are appointed many times because they are known better by those who make the selection and are often given preference over outsiders when the quali-

fications are equal. It is natural that home-town products make up a considerable proportion of the teaching staff in most communities. Temporary service at odd times as a substitute can ordinarily be rendered only by a local resident. Substitute service is the stepping stone to regular appointment in many systems. It must be cautioned that if this practice is followed to too great an extent, it leads to an inbreeding that may tend to restrict and curtail the program of the school by keeping out new ideas and dimming the perspective.

RELIGIOUS AND RACIAL DISCRIMINATIONS

There is an increasing concern and realization that no one religious, racial, or economic group has a "corner" on all of the well-trained and competent teachers. This fact is pointed out by Hill and Morrisett:

. . . The small number of non-Caucasians employed by the Pasadena City Schools does not represent the same proportion of employees as there are students of the same type in school. There has been a persistent proportion of approximately ten percent of non-Caucasian students in the school for many years. The proportion of employees of these types has persistently remained below. This statement is not intended to suggest that a conscious effort be made to keep the proportion of non-Caucasian employees consistent with the proportion of non-Caucasian students, but it is used to suggest that the proportion of qualified non-Caucasians who could provide excellent service to the schools is probably higher than the proportion currently employed.²⁰

If the employment policy of the school district is designed to secure the most competent teachers available, this matter becomes less significant.

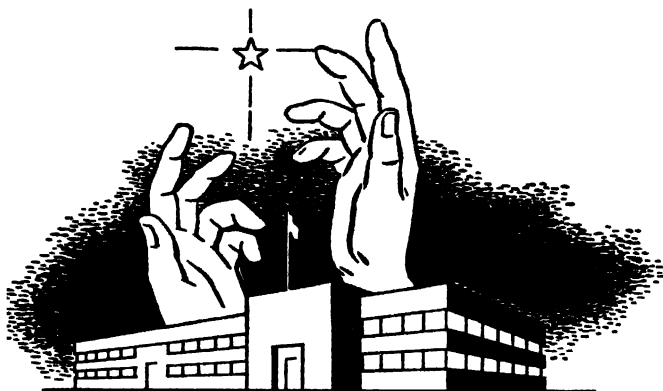
SUMMARY OF PRINCIPLES FOR SELECTION AND APPOINTMENT

Undoubtedly there are many other problems regarding the selection and employment of personnel, but these discussed here are the most common. If these and all other problems pertaining to the selection and appointment of teachers are met squarely and with the following principles in mind, continued improvement in procedures and practices will result. The principles referred to are:

1. That insofar as objective, quantifiable and recordable evidence of merit and fitness are available, this evidence should be used in lieu of subjective judgments
2. That subjective judgments should be used to appraise those qualifications for which objective evidence cannot be obtained and every effort should be made to enhance the reliability of these judgments
3. That teacher selection is a long range process, beginning with the recruitment of the high-school students for teacher preparation and continuing through the period of probationary teaching
4. That appraisal of merit and fitness should be the responsibility of professional officials and adequate safeguards to protect their prerogatives should be established
5. That minimum standards of preparation and experience for each position should be established
6. That the plan for teacher selection adopted by a local community should be widely publicized²¹

The problems in the selection of teachers, like many other problems in school administration, require professional stamina and fortitude in the superintendent of schools. The educational welfare of the children in the school should be the first consideration. Their interests demand that appointments follow the basic principle of selecting the best teacher for the given position that the available salary will attract.

²¹ American Association of Examiners and Administrators of Educational Personnel, *op. cit.*, pp. 18-23.



CHAPTER 9

Orientation and Improvement of Personnel

Our faith in reason and in the endless potentialities of man has made us optimists; we believe that improvement and growth is always possible. This is particularly true in a profession as social in its nature as teaching and where each individual, to a degree at least, commits himself to assisting others to improve.

It is increasingly recognized that the teacher can bring to the school system that employs him only a fraction of the power that he needs to perform his task at the highest level, no matter how well educated he may be. With this understanding, the newer emphasis is on the desirability of having every teacher continue to give attention to experiences calculated to lead to personal and professional growth.

Broadly conceived, in-service education includes all activities of employed teachers that contribute to their professional growth and competence. In this chapter the discussion is limited to systematized activities promoted and directed by the local school.

The increasing standards of preservice education have not lessened

the need for continued in-service education. With changing conditions, only continued study and growth in service will provide teachers sufficiently up-to-date to cope with the task at hand.

GETTING OFF TO A GOOD START

Many enriching experiences which enable the beginning teacher to enter his new teaching responsibilities with greater ease and fewer adjustments are provided for in modern teacher-education programs. Upon entering his new position, the beginning teacher still has to make new adjustments and establish new relationships. Too often the newly employed teacher is compelled to resort to time-consuming, frequently disheartening, trial-and-error methods in meeting problems with which he has a professional right to expect some initial assistance. An effective plan of orientation can assure initial confidence and may be the difference between his success and failure.

The in-service improvement program must be concerned with the orientation and proper adjustment of inexperienced younger teachers entering the profession for the first time and the experienced teachers entering the system for the first time or being transferred from another school or department.

TEACHERS REPORT PROBLEMS

When one is reminded that substantial numbers of teachers report problems almost as soon as they are appointed and when one realizes the multiplicity of these problems, it is readily understandable that the work of the local personnel administrator starts early in the professional career of the teacher. Spears¹ reports that after ten weeks of teaching, two-thirds of the teachers were disturbed by problems. Half of these were concerned about low salaries; one-third were concerned about pettiness in the professional relationships, professional jealousy, narrow attitudes and intolerance, distorted pupil-teacher relationships, dictatorial methods, and gossiping. Another third expressed alarm at the rigidity of the curriculum, the traditionalism of fellow teachers, lack of enthusiasm for newer methods, the discrediting of ideas of the

beginning teachers, and administrative emphasis on conformity. Types of adjustment problems reported by Tate² included school discipline, teaching outside one's field of preparation, understanding philosophy and objectives of the school, housing and living conditions, finding recreation, obtaining conferences with busy principal or superintendent, and finding time to take part in civic affairs. Some of the problems of beginning teachers related to the classroom itself are provision for individual differences, presentation of subject matter, organization of work and teaching materials, conditions of work, measuring achievement, teacher and pupil participation in the recitation, teacher preparation, making assignments, and adjustment by the teacher to the classroom situation.³

PROGRAMS FOR PRESCHOOL INDUCTION

In recent years it has not been uncommon for a school system to have as many as 30 percent of its teachers recent employees of the system. This increased turnover has caused school officials to feel that they must start the in-service program with an organized induction of new teachers on an orderly basis so that the schools may operate efficiently from the first day and so that the new teacher may have an immediate feeling of "belonging." It has also been found that teachers already in the system benefit by having a period before the opening of school for preparation of their work and consultation on the general program.

There is a strong realization that better teaching and happier teachers result from giving assistance in bridging the gap between theory and practice.

A very substantial number of school systems give help before the opening of school although such help is often nothing more than a conference with the superintendent, supervisor, or principal. Preschool induction programs should be designed to help the classroom teachers with their most pressing problems—social, personal, and professional. Some programs give a complete introduction to the organization and

policies of the school system, the routines of their respective schools, and the school plants. Each teacher is helped to make a good start toward establishing effective teaching procedures; to handle personal problems; and to make the acquaintance of fellow workers, parents, and congenial people in the community. The teacher who is new to the community needs help with many problems.

The new classroom teacher can take advantage of any in-service opportunity open to other teachers. For them many systems hold special meetings and workshops, give time for visitation of other schools, arrange demonstration lessons, and provide helping teachers (not members of the regular supervisory staff) to assist them in working out their teaching plans.

Some school systems give special help through the usual supervisory program. Other systems give their help before the opening of school and afterwards encourage new teachers to take advantage of any helpful in-service opportunities. Some provide no special help before school opens but do give it during the year or even during the entire probationary period. A practice often followed is to take care of the new teacher's most pressing problems before the opening of school and defer everything else. The advantage of this type of plan is in the prevention of confusion by introducing too much material in a short time. It also recognizes the fact that after some experience in the classroom, much of the assistance which can be offered will be more meaningful.

Social activities may be anything from a break for coffee during a long program to an all-afternoon and evening picnic or a reception. Activities of this type could be used to give advice on local social customs, local opinion on dress, and local decorum for teachers. This practice is not followed as much as it should be.

PART PLAYED BY THE EXPERIENCED TEACHER

An experienced teacher, especially one young enough in service to remember vividly the problems of the first year, can give valuable help to the beginning or new teacher. Some cities appoint such a teacher-sponsor while others probably do so but not as a part of a general orientation plan. Where the teacher-sponsor plan is used, it is the

function of the teacher-sponsor to welcome the new teacher, help locate a place to live, serve as a guide to meetings and other activities in connection with entering the school system, make introduction to the school principal and others, and help with questions that the new teacher does not wish to take to the principal or supervisor.

The use of handbooks, directories, leaflets, or packets of materials other than curriculum guides and courses of study for new teachers is becoming quite commonplace. These usually include useful information about the city, the school system, and teachers' professional organizations. The development and use of handbooks was treated in chapter 7.

GROUP PARTICIPATION IN ORIENTATION PROGRAMS

The groups which might participate in the orientation programs are almost without limit. Some of these might be:

1. The administrative and supervisory personnel
2. Members of the board of education
3. Classroom teachers, especially those of the local education association
4. Employees in the recreational department and other departments of the city government
5. Parent-teacher organizations
6. Council of churches or the ministerial alliance
7. The chamber of commerce
8. Service clubs—Rotary, Lions, and the like
9. Business and industrial firms

Luncheons and other social affairs; complementary tickets to plays or concerts; sightseeing tours; visitation of leading industry; furnishing maps and descriptive folders of the city or surrounding territory are suggested activities that might be included. A practice of this type provides an excellent opportunity for building understanding of the school program.

DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED

Although all of these ideas are desirable in an induction program, there are sometimes obstacles and difficulties. Lack of money too often is one of the chief obstacles. If schools cannot pay teachers for the

extra time, they may hesitate to require anything from them before the actual opening of school and, because of the pressure of the regular work thereafter, may preclude giving much time to teacher orientation. Another difficulty is the feeling that a great deal of material must be presented in a short time. Long presentations and much detail may be confusing unless time for review is possible later. The varied needs of new teachers present different problems. Their teaching jobs will be different and their background and experience will vary. An individual approach is the best way to meet individual needs but this is not always easy.

Those who have had experience with teacher orientation programs have found that classroom teachers want help with practical problems and not discussions of theory and philosophy. They want time for conferences with principal and supervisors and time to work in their own school buildings getting ready for the first days with pupils. The authors are also sure that this is true for teachers already in the school system.

SUGGESTED ORIENTATION PROGRAMS

The authors have included a number of outlines of orientation programs supplied by the National Education Association Research Division. Materials mentioned here as well as others may be secured through the Information Section of the National Education Association Research Division.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA (Population 521,718). Material submitted by Marvin C. Johnson, Director of Personnel:

Our orientation for new teachers begins when a candidate is invited for an interview with the selection committee. This interview is organized on a friendly basis and we invite the candidate to come in to meet the committee and get acquainted with Minneapolis and its teaching situation. During this interview it is possible to get acquainted with the candidate, make him feel welcome, and at the same time try to discuss with him the important topics that are covered in any interview with a prospective employee.

All candidates who have accepted positions with us are mailed a housing list, which is arranged by school districts, early enough in the summer so

that those interested in obtaining housing early will have an opportunity to begin looking. We also try to get our assignments to buildings out during the first week in July, which tends to make for satisfaction on the part of the candidate as he will know where to look for housing and make his transportation and living plans accordingly.

All teachers are on duty in their buildings two days before pupils arrive. This gives a new teacher an opportunity to get acquainted with the principal and other members of the faculty, get settled in his room, and get materials and equipment organized. The superintendent calls a meeting of all teachers the first day so that the new teachers have an opportunity to see and hear him and to get an understanding of the general philosophy of our educational program in Minneapolis.

The Saturday after the opening of school, the board of education sponsors a luncheon at one of our hotels. A florist donates the flowers for everyone. Other Minneapolis concerns donate articles that would be useful to an individual and to a teacher. Words of welcome are short. We usually obtain a second or third grade youngster to welcome the new teachers as well as a senior high-school pupil. Usually the senior high-school pupil is the president of the All-City Student Council. We have found this to be very effective. We usually have background music from a small ensemble from the school system. Most of the members of the board of education are present to bring their greetings to the new teachers. We have found that this luncheon meeting, although it lasts only about an hour and a half, does give all new teachers an opportunity to meet one another. Their reactions have been most encouraging and satisfying.

Prior to the luncheon, the morning is devoted to bus trips around the city for all who are interested in going. The trip includes visits to many of the places that might be used in the educational program. This is primarily an introduction to our whole field-trip organization, which is used extensively from kindergarten through the twelfth grade.

We also give to all new teachers free tickets to our football rally. It is held in our municipal arena and all the high-school football teams gather and play for a short period of time. This gathering also includes all of the high school bands. It gives the new teachers an overview of the music and athletic programs in Minneapolis and makes a fine outing for them as well.

About two weeks after the opening of school, all new teachers are invited to meet with the administrative staff, and particularly with the members of the personnel staff, to hear about general personnel practices

in the school system. This meeting is devoted to personnel policies and procedures and offers an opportunity for answering questions that new teachers have about their own general welfare and relations with the school system. After this general meeting, teachers are divided into groups according to their grades and special areas. Thereafter they meet monthly for discussion of problems within their own areas.

Three parties are held during the first year for these people and they do their own planning. One year they rented a boat and steamed down the Mississippi for an evening dinner and cruise.

Each new teacher receives a handbook, *You and the Minneapolis Schools*, as soon as he arrives in Minneapolis. The Civic Activities League also gives new teachers a copy of the newcomers' key to Minneapolis, *Your Home Town*.⁴

TULSA, OKLAHOMA (Population 182,740). Material submitted by Charles C. Mason, Superintendent of Schools:

In the belief that a good induction makes a lasting impression which may mean the difference between developing good teachers or poor ones, the Tulsa Public Schools launched a "Welcome Teacher" program in 1949. The "Welcome" calendar is organized under five areas, with a continuing committee in each area. While most program events are scheduled during the week prior to the opening of school, the personnel orientation program operates throughout the year. The areas in which activities are provided are:

Introduction to Tulsa—including industrial life, cultural life, town tours (arranged in cooperation with Tulsa Town Club and Civic organizations). Cultural life introductions include church, art centers, and recreational facilities.

Introduction to the System—accomplished through a handbook, meetings, and tours. This area falls under five headings: general philosophy and policies, acquaintance with the physical plant, administrative and supervisory organization and personnel, special services, and business and maintenance operations.

Introduction to Personnel Service—including housing, insurance services, sick leave, credit union, Immediate Assistance Club, retirement, and

professional organizations. This phase of the program is accomplished through meetings and the *Handbook for Teachers*.

Introduction to Department Areas—information regarding materials available, interpretations, policies, procedures, visitation, and human resources (school staff, medical staff, reading clinic, etc.).

Introduction to Individual Schools—including routines, responsibilities, and technics.

The *Handbook for Teachers New to Tulsa Schools* is an attractive book containing much information pertaining to these five areas. It is divided into six sections: (1) The New Teacher and the Tulsa Public Schools, (2) School Policies and Teachers' Responsibilities, (3) Steps to a Tulsa Philosophy of Education, (4) Personal-professional Interests, (5) The New Teacher and the Community, and (6) Miscellaneous facts.

Planning the "Welcome Teacher" program has been done by a committee appointed by the superintendent and including teachers, principals, and supervisors. Also assisting are the Tulsa Classroom Teachers Association, the Tulsa Education Association, and the Association for Childhood Education.

New teachers who participate in the orientation program are asked to evaluate it in the interest of further improvement. The feeling is that the program has been highly successful. Some changes and improvements are anticipated from year to year and the program will no doubt be continued.⁵

LAKEWOOD, OHIO (Population 68,071). Material submitted by Martin W. Essex, Superintendent of Schools; Paul E. Spayde, Director of Research and Guidance, and Mildred Dicke, former president of the Lakewood Teachers Association:

Our efforts in Lakewood, Ohio, have been keyed to a consideration of the new teacher as an individual, rather than as one of a group of new arrivals. No form letter and no skimping of correspondence or interviews have become policy. After the contract is signed, increasing emphasis is directed toward personalizing the adjustment to the school system. If a new teacher is to be treated as an individual, it is imperative that we learn a great deal about him—his aspirations, experiences, abilities, attainments, travel background, and avocational interests. In other words, the teacher is more than an automat or employee—he becomes an acquaintance, a personality, and we hope, a friend.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 16.

Personal services at a time of need are remembered long after pedagogical advice is forgotten. Probably the most pressing concern of the new teacher is finding desirable and convenient housing accommodations. Where possible, teachers are assigned to schools in June so that they may choose living quarters accordingly. Pairing or grouping for apartments, when desired, has been successful. The teachers association provides guides and cars in the search for quarters.

Names and addresses of newcomers are forwarded to the YMCA and YWCA, which enthusiastically welcome new teachers to share in their many recreational opportunities. Similar information is made available to ministers in the community, and new teachers report that they have received cordial invitations from the churches of their faith. A copy of *Professional Personnel Policies* containing such information as administrative organization, professional growth policy, compensations for service, and miscellaneous policies, is presented at the time of employment. This year the teachers association is following the example of some of our good neighbors by providing a packet that includes complimentary tickets to theater, concert, and other community events. Community groups cooperate generously in filling the packet. The new teachers have been appreciative of the fact that they were introduced to the many cultural, educational, and recreational opportunities of a large city (Cleveland) which they might have overlooked.

For several years the Lakewood Teachers Association and the Administrative Council have cooperated in planning the activities for the opening day of school. For the new people the first day begins with a brief meeting with the members of the administrative and supervisory staff at which time introductions are made so that the new teachers may gain some perspective of the general pattern of the school personnel. This short session is followed by a meeting for all teachers. At this meeting the presidents of the schoolboard, the Parent Teacher Council, and the Lakewood Teachers Association make brief remarks. The morning meeting is followed by a luncheon, with the new teachers as guests of the teachers association. The superintendent of schools presides and all teachers are seated according to the building in which they will teach, giving the new people an opportunity to become acquainted with those with whom they will be working during the year. After lunch teachers go to their assigned buildings for meetings.

The PTA in each building provides opportunities to help new teachers feel at home. Dinner meetings at which the new people are given special recognition are held early in the year. Many parents, too, come to school

at the close of the day to introduce themselves to their child's new teacher. Through the year the teachers association arranges meetings, dinners, and teas for parents, members of the board of education, and teachers so that all of those interested in the welfare of the children may come to know each other better.

The problem of helping the new teacher to achieve security in his classroom is not neglected. Early in the year each new teacher visits the classroom of an experienced teacher of the same grade level. Curriculum guides by members of the staff are available. Meetings to which new teachers may bring their problems are arranged by the administrative and supervisory staff.

Not all the problems of helping the new teacher adjust to his teaching situation and to the community have been solved, but the old attitude of letting the new teacher sink or swim has been replaced by a spirit of friendliness and a realization that many people can help the new teacher become well adjusted in his personal and professional life.⁶

HASBROUCK HEIGHTS, NEW JERSEY (Population 9,181). Material submitted by Clarence C. Hitchcock, Supervising Principal of Schools:

The Hasbrouck Heights Education Association recently prepared a pamphlet entitled, *Interested in . . . Hasbrouck Heights? Our Schools? Our School Staff?*, which was sent to new teachers, new families in town, and others connected with the schools. It contains information about the town's location, government and organizations, and about the organization of the school system, location of the schools, teachers salaries, and professional organizations.

At the opening of school in September the board of education finances a luncheon meeting for all school personnel. This is held at a restaurant in which there is a room available for a meeting, and all members of the board of education attend. The principal of each building gives a talk on the work of the coming year. The supervisory principal and the president of the board of education discuss policies. New teachers are introduced to the group with some mention of the training and experience of each.

During the first week or two of school, the PTA of each school has a tea for the faculty, at which time the new teachers are introduced and are able to meet the officers and members of the PTA.⁷

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 39.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 47.

CONTINUED IMPROVEMENT AND GROWTH

Although the orientation and induction of personnel, which provide a feeling of security, assist one to "belong," and get new employees off "to a good start," are important aspects of any good in-service plan, it must be remembered that the professionally minded teacher seeks opportunities for continuous growth. Changing demands and opportunities of society make it necessary that each member of the profession add continually to his knowledge, skill, and understanding. It is the function of the in-service program to contribute to the growth of the teacher.

The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards has developed a statement of policy that could well be used in determining a program of in-service education for teachers.

1. *The responsibility for in-service education is mutual.* School systems should make time, resources, and growth situations available; the teacher should contribute resources, time, effort and enthusiasm.
2. *In-service education should begin with the recognized needs of individuals and groups.* All members of the professional staff should contribute to the recognition and definition of such needs. The school and the community should delineate clearly the responsibilities which lie in their respective fields. Newly gained ideas and techniques should be applied with reasonable promptness to the improvement of educational procedures.
3. *Opportunities for in-service growth should be provided for all members of the staff.* The program should promote growth in understanding on the part of all individuals and of community organizations and agencies.
4. In-service growth should be stimulated by such means as:
 - a. *Group study of actual school problems*, under guidance of able professional leaders and with competent consultants available. Activities of this character may involve teachers from a single school system or from several. It is recommended that some in-service growth projects bring together teachers from more than one school, from various departments, and from different grade levels.
 - b. *Summer study programs*, on- or off-campus, credit or noncredit. Projects sponsored by teacher-education institutions will gain in helpfulness as faculty members become more familiar with the actual conditions of public education and so relate themselves to the

improvement of teaching as to increase their effectiveness in promoting growth of teachers in the field.

- c. *Experience in the life of the community.* The life of the community should be shared through the teacher entering into its activities and participating in the process of its development so that becoming a more successful teacher means becoming a more successful and responsible teacher-citizen. It is particularly important for the teacher to become familiar with all agencies affecting the lives and growth of children.
 - d. *Stimulation of the teacher to interpret to the community* his own work, the objectives and the life—the problems, failures, and successes—of the school.
 - e. *Purposeful school visitation.* Visitation may occur within or without the home school situation. Understanding leadership is indicated, and learning derived from promising practices observed should be applied to the solution of recognized problems.
 - f. *Travel*, both home and abroad.
 - g. *Planned use of the teacher's daily activities as laboratory experiences*, under skillful motivation and guidance.
 - h. *Participation in the activities of professional associations* as a means of developing increased competence while improving the teacher's sense of professional responsibility.
5. *In-service growth programs should be planned to contribute to improvement of the teacher's personality.* Good grooming, poise, ease of approach, many sided interests, and wide areas of appreciation are among personality traits which should characterize outstanding teacher personalities.⁸

A program which contributes to the growth of teachers so that they may further enrich the lives of boys and girls should utilize fully all resources at hand, including those of the school system itself, regional colleges and universities, of individuals and professional groups, and of the community. The competent teacher is a growing teacher.

It is the inherent obligation of teachers to continue their professional growth. The professional teacher should use his daily experiences and all available resources to improve his worth as an individual, to refine

his techniques and procedures, and to enrich his qualities of leadership. The orientation, induction, and in-service education programs are opportunities of the local administrator to assist the teacher in meeting his obligation.

How the personnel is organized determines to a very large degree the opportunities that the staff has for continued improvement and growth. The prevailing philosophy or point of view is also a large factor in education of an in-service type. Recognition on the part of the board and school administration that growth is necessary to obtain maximum service from the staff, and a feeling of responsibility on the part of the staff for self-improvement, are fundamental. If these concepts are followed up by coöperation in planning and carrying out activities designed to provide growth opportunities, the largest returns may be expected.

MEANING OF IMPROVEMENT AND GROWTH

As conceived in relation to personnel administration, these terms have a wide application. They involve the opportunities for and the processes of improving techniques of instruction and also the general development of the individual. Group recognition that these aspects of improvement and growth go hand in hand has been developing for some time, particularly since the work of the Commission on Teacher Education. By setting long-range goals, the commission established the need for continual growth and development. An illustration of their outstanding contribution is in their listing and analysis of "Qualities Needed in Teachers." It will not be possible to do more than list them here, but the list will serve to illustrate the challenge to professional leadership in respect to improvement and growth. The qualities the Commission has suggested, in its *Teachers for our Times* are:

1. Respect for personality
2. Community-mindedness
3. Rational behavior
4. Skill in coöperation
5. Increasing knowledge
6. Skill in mediating knowledge

7. Friendliness with children
8. Understanding children
9. Social understanding and behavior
10. Good citizenship in the school as society
11. Skill in evaluation
12. Faith in the worth of teaching⁹

An examination of this list will show that there are qualities of a "general" nature and others of a "professional" significance. In the concluding chapter of *Teachers for Our Times* the commission states:

We live in a revolutionary period of history. All our values, all our ways of existence, are being challenged. Upon the choices we and our children make a fateful future hangs. How can we equip those children to choose wisely and then to act with effective intelligence? It is evident that we must be clear as to our basic values; we must understand what are the most important social facts of our times. Then, we must obtain schools in which our children can learn to share those values, to deal with those facts. But if this is to be done, teachers who can create such schools must be produced. This is the task of teacher education.¹⁰

This statement and the challenging list of qualities needed by the teacher in today's schools indicate that the only hope of approaching them in any staff is through a program of coöperative development in which the goals, activities, and processes are democratically conceived and carried out.

THE NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT AND GROWTH

In determining the need for improvement and growth, both quantitative and qualitative analyses of the staff are fundamental. The quantitative analysis has to do with such facts as the amount of education of the staff, its turnover, its general nature as to experience, age, and the like; while the qualitative analysis has to do with the nature of the individuals themselves that make up the staff and their adaptability to a changing task.

Determining the problems and establishing the need for improvement as the result of quantitative analysis is easier than as the result of qualitative analysis. In spite of the highly selective nature of most of the school staff, the greater problems in respect to improvement of the personnel are those as a result of qualitative analysis.

Variations in composition of the staff will exist from school system to school system, from rural to urban, from large to small and within segments of the staff as it is made up of groups such as elementary, secondary, vocational, supervisory, or administrative personnel. This indicates the challenge to deal with the problem not only from a regional or state level, but more especially in every school system. To illustrate these variations a number of descriptions of actual school system conditions in different parts of the country have been included.

CASE A. *A Small City*

In a city of about 12,500 permanent residents, conducted a co-operative survey of its schools, using committees made up of faculty and administration, representatives from the State Department of Public Instruction, the state university, the state Agricultural College, and local lay citizens. One phase of the survey report dealt with teaching and non-teaching staff.

The district has 112 members in its teaching staff, 62 of whom are women and 50 men. Seventy percent of the high school teachers are men, whereas only 14 percent of the elementary teachers are men. They represent a broad age range, from 20 to 77, with an average age of 39 years. Elementary teachers average 37.5 years; junior high school, 44.3 years; and senior high school, 43.4 years. Eighty-eight percent of the teachers were born in the state or surrounding states. Exactly one half of the women teachers are married, and all but one of the men are married. Of these married teachers, only 5 men have working wives, while 28 of the married women teachers have husbands with occupations. Fifty-eight teachers have no dependent children, while 43 do. Forty-nine teachers have dependents other than children. Of this number, 10 are single women.

As for preparation and training, the average number of quarter hours of college credit held by the teachers is 213.34 for elementary teachers, 254.5 for junior high school teachers, and 251.7 for senior high school teachers. Thirteen teachers have no standard certification and are serving on temporary letters of authorization. Credit for professional courses show

a somewhat different picture. The average number of quarter hours for elementary teachers is 53.89; for junior high, 39.9; for senior high, 51.5. Twenty-one teachers have less than the 33 quarter hours of professional training required for secondary teachers or the 45 hours required for elementary teachers. Sixteen teachers, 14 of them elementary, hold master's degrees. The majority of elementary teachers received the bachelor's degree in the last ten years; the majority of secondary teachers received the bachelor's degree within the last twenty years.

CASE B. *A Large City*

In this city of 200,000 completed a survey of its schools which showed a total school employment of 1,205 certificated and 720 non-certificated personnel. Seventy-nine percent of these people live within the city limits.

Forty-five percent of all employees have no dependents; 6 percent have four or more. One-fourth have been or are in the military service in some capacity or other. Only 1.3 percent are non-Caucasian. As for age, 8.1 percent are over 60 years of age and 4.7 percent are under 26; the average age is 44.2 years.

In the area of experience, 4.2 percent have been employed in this district longer than thirty years, 54.4 percent have been there ten years or less. Retirements of certificated personnel during the past ten years have averaged 25 per year. Only 15.4 percent of the teachers have had no experience before coming to the district, 34.3 percent have had five or more years.

Only 2.4 percent of certificated employees are working on emergency credentials, and 15 of these are required because of transfers to special assignments. Among elementary school teachers, 72.7 percent have only bachelor's degrees and 15.3 percent have the master's degree, or its equivalent. Among junior high school teachers, 27.8 percent have bachelor's degrees, 59.8 percent have master's degrees, and 11.6 percent have a year of work beyond the master's degree.

Among noncertificated personnel, the average age of cafeteria workers is 50.6; office, 50.3; operation and maintenance, 46.8; and recreation, 35.2 years. Only 0.48 percent have been with the system more than thirty years; 77.8 percent have been employed ten years or less. Twenty-six percent have had some college training. Those reporting no work experience prior to employment in this system are 18.6 percent of the total; 48.9 percent have had five or more years.

CASE C. *A County Unit*

The school survey of a county with a population of approximately 100,000 showed a teaching personnel of 335 white teachers and 154 Negro teachers.

The white teachers have an average of 3.6 years of college training, including 13 teachers with less than one year, 4 with one year, 43 with two years, 144 with four years, 40 with five years, 14 with six years, and 5 with seven years. Of these teachers 210 attended training institutions within the state. During the last five years 83 have had in-service training of some sort, 133 have taken correspondence courses or extension courses, and 100 have attended summer schools. Sixteen teachers hold war emergency certificates, 12 hold certificates based on less than one year of college, and 3 hold no certificate.

Sixty-nine of the white teachers are men, 266 women. Their average age is 42.9 years, with a range from 20 to above 70 years. In teaching experience they range from no previous experience to 51 years, with an average of 17.6 years. The average number of years of experience in this system is 12.4. All but 28 have permanent homes within the county.

Negro teachers have an average of 3.1 years of college training, ranging from 2 with no college experience to 5 with five years. One hundred thirty-eight of the 154 have attended training institutions within the state. During the last five years 111 have attended summer school, 77 have participated in in-service training or workshops, and 67 have taken correspondence or extension courses. Only 12 hold provisional certificates, while 25 hold certificates based on less than two years of college. Two have no certificates.

The Negro teachers average 15.2 years of teaching, ranging from 5 with no previous experience to 16 with over 30 years, including one with 48 years. Their experience in the county averages 12.3 years. Only 5 have permanent homes outside the county.

Two hundred nineteen nonprofessional personnel are employed, of whom 82 are white and 137 Negro. Average age is 44.5 years, with 8 under 20, and 22 people over 60. They average 5 years in their present positions, ranging from less than 1 year to 37 years. Their average education is 7.5 years of schooling, while 19 have attended college for one or more years. Sixty-nine have had specific training for their positions before employment.

While it is rather easy to describe a school system in terms of numbers and statistics, as illustrations A through C have done, it is also possible but more difficult to describe a system in terms of the nature of the staff itself, how it compares to other groups in respect to quality, in respect to its goals and philosophy, its attitudes and understandings. A technique, not new to business but only lately applied to educational staff problems in any formal way, is the morale study. Such studies enable a description of the staff to be made in terms of the nature of the staff, since such studies reveal underlying problems, attitudes, understandings, goals, and philosophy in a fashion not otherwise measurable. It should be clearly understood that such studies do not represent an approach that can be reduced to percentages or statistics, but in the hands of skillful persons, this approach will reveal many areas where improvement is needed. The following is a description of a system as the result of such a study.

CASE D. *Morale Study*

A questionnaire survey in which anonymity of responses was carefully preserved was sent to all employees in this school district.

Responses on the first, or general morale, section indicated fair to good morale, with male employees tending to be more dissatisfied than female. Lowest level of favorable sentiment among administrative-supervisory groups was found among supervisors. Orientation practices were seriously questioned.

The second section of the survey, dealing with working conditions, again showed the most unfavorable sentiment among administrative-supervisory employees. Junior high school lighting and washroom facilities for administrators were criticized. Unfavorable sentiments increased in proportion to length of service in the school system.

The third section, on operating conditions, showed some dissatisfaction or confusion regarding supplies and equipment, some unhappiness among junior high school teachers regarding discipline, a certain amount of criticism of records and reports, including conditions for discussions with parents during school time, and discontent with overcrowded classrooms.

Responses on the section dealing with belonging and participation showed a need for detailed studies in the development of a sense of belonging among maintenance personnel and in arousing a sense of belong-

ing to the community among adult education teachers and extended day teachers. Desire for wider participation in budget preparation was voiced, as well as participation in the selection of personnel and in the selection of materials and supplies.

Responses to questions concerning supervisory relationships showed a high level of favorable sentiment, but indicated a need for study in the areas of more specific instructions for elementary teachers, relationship of maintenance personnel to supervisors, and constructive criticism for many types of personnel.

Concerning policies and practices, there seemed to be some lack of understanding of Board of Education policies among adult education teachers and extended day teachers. Discipline practices were questioned somewhat, as well as the effectiveness of faculty meetings, conferences, and in-service training.

Questions concerning pay indicated a feeling among supervisors and noncertificated personnel that pay rates within the system were not consistent.

Responses to questions concerning interstaff communication indicated a need for a complete study of all aspects of the communications system.

The descriptions reveal the wide differences in conditions and demonstrate the fact that only by a careful study of each situation can a program of improvement be developed. Many factors, such as state certification requirements, salary schedules, retirement and other welfare matters, as well as employment policies, affect conditions and must be dealt with hand in hand with any program to correct conditions that may exist.

By studying the technique employed in studies such as the morale study, a school administrator, a staff committee, or even a lay group can determine morale factors that should figure in improvement and growth programs. Sometimes it is relatively simple to remove factors adversely affecting morale. In many cases things which seem small are the greatest deterrents to staff improvement.

With changing conditions, only continued study and development will enable teachers to meet new problems. No amount of time spent in college or university will complete the preparation of the teacher. Although the institutions may make use of all known procedures in teacher education, there remain many problems which must be solved

while the teacher is on the job, much must be learned as he teaches. "Growth emerges from the activity of the self, from enlarged understandings and the apprehension of greater meanings in the environment of which one is a part."¹¹ Teachers must be stimulated to do their best at all times so that there will be continuous improvement. The teaching profession will never be stronger than the poorest teachers. The in-service program must be such that it will develop the corps of teachers into a group interested in solving educational problems of the community, the state, and of the teaching profession.

PERSONNEL POLICIES AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

An objective of personnel administration in the public schools should be to develop policies, procedures, and activities that are consistent with the principal purpose of administration, namely, to serve the needs of boys and girls in a learning situation. The administration must be designed to develop peak efficiency and retention of those individuals whose efforts are necessary to the success of the organization. If this point of view is accepted, every policy, practice, and personnel activity needs to be examined to determine what it contributes to the end sought. Too frequently such policies, practices, and activities are developed for administrative convenience and ease of operation, as opposed to the function they should serve.

If the personnel policies of school systems are to contribute to the improvement and growth of the staff, participation on the part of the entire staff in policy making and planning is imperative. Policies thus formed have a better chance of producing results than those handed down in an authoritarian manner. However, unless there is understanding and sympathy on the part of administration, the policies have little chance for success regardless of the manner in which they were formulated.

It is not enough to deal in policies. They must be implemented and the resulting program must reach all members of the staff. An example of an approach to implementing a desirable personnel policy in rela-

tion to professional growth is the work of the Committee on Professional Growth of Wilmington, Delaware. The following statement indicating its responsibility, function, and duties is taken from the handbook of the Wilmington Public Schools, entitled *Administrative Organization and Functions*.

COMMITTEE ON PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

RESPONSIBILITY: The committee on professional growth is directly responsible to the superintendent and reports only to him.

FUNCTION: The development of a program of in-service training designed to increase the professional competency of the staff.

DUTIES:

1. Survey the activities going on in the schools in order to discover the needs and interests of all personnel
2. Plan and administer a program of in-service training which will meet the needs and interests of all personnel in individual schools, on a city-wide basis or for the individual teacher
3. Recommend to the superintendent the allotment of funds provided in the budget for scholarships, travel, professional consultants and any other type of activity recommended by the committee
4. Recommend to the superintendent the program approved by the committee and the budget appropriation necessary to finance it
5. Provide the stimulation necessary for the exchange of ideas and for the development of new projects whose activities will supplement and challenge the thinking of all groups
6. Coöperate with the department of personnel in the approval of the in-service training program directly related to salary increments
7. Plan not only for immediate needs and interests but also for long-time goals and consider alternate ways of achieving them
8. Develop effective procedures designed to keep the staff informed concerning the work of the committee
9. Set up criteria for minimum requirements in granting salary increments for work done beyond each degree
10. Evaluate the procedures of the committee from time to time, appraise effort and re-interpret function and working method¹²

It is clear from such a statement that the continued staff development is the goal of their implemental policy.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR STAFF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

The ultimate responsibility for staff growth and improvement technically lies with the board of education. The educational profession, however, cannot ignore its responsibility for its own growth and development if it is to merit the name *profession*. While administrative leadership is answerable for initiating programs that will provide for improvement, the growing concept of shared responsibility by the entire staff is a sound one. The concepts of leadership, factors affecting morale, democracy in administration, and the participatory process, developed in Chapter 3, all have their application to the matter of responsibility referred to in this section. Every school system interested in its own development will need to adapt its procedures to the conditions that prevail. Reference to the case studies earlier in this chapter will demonstrate the wide difference in the approach that would be required. Too frequently it is assumed that a group is not capable of working out its own problems. Usually this is a manifestation of someone's lack of fundamental belief in democracy in administration, and all too frequently this attitude represents a retarding influence in itself.

PROCEDURES AND PROCESSES THAT ENCOURAGE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

In any typical school system conditions may be found that both encourage and retard the growth and development of the staff. For the sake of brevity, and to present a positive point of view, a summary of procedures that have been found helpful in encouraging growth and development will be presented here. Reference to the earlier case studies in respect to morale will provide suggestions of things that seem to have a negative effect and therefore should be avoided. Many of the suggestions are such as to apply best to particular school systems, and the student is encouraged to think of them in relation to his own working situation. At the same time they are such as to allow for adaptations and special programs to meet local conditions. The work

of the Commission on Teacher Education has been especially helpful in this analysis, and the student is referred to *Teacher Education In-Service*¹³ for further material on many of the following areas.

THE PLANNING GROUP AS AN AGENCY FOR IMPROVEMENT

Every school system has problems, a large number of them open to solution directly by the school staff, through coöperative study. To organize such a program of study for the development and growth of the staff, some centralized planning is necessary. When a school system already includes many working groups, the planning body serves as a coördinating unit and as a source of assistance and guidance for the entire effort. Representation on such a central planning group should, of course, be representative of all elements in the faculty. By functioning as a combination of working groups, held together somewhat loosely, the planning body achieves more broad results than if it were a single working group with authorized subcommittees.

To be most efficient, the planning body must represent a felt need, must keep in close touch with all that is going on in the schools, and must constantly be evaluating and improving its work.

The contribution made toward teacher growth by a planning group does not, of course, in any way relieve the administration of responsibility, but it does serve as a distinct administrative aid.

POLICY COUNCILS AS A GUIDING ELEMENT

More and more frequently it has come to be realized that staff members are likely to perform more efficiently and maintain higher morale if they share in drawing up the school policies under which they operate. As professional persons they are obviously qualified to make worth-while contributions to such planning.

The policy council has similarities to the planning group in that it is representative in character and operates for the schools as a whole, but it differs in purpose. Its function is to aid the administration in determining what should be the underlying objectives of the schools and what general procedures should be followed to realize those ob-

jectives. If it is properly organized and functions efficiently, it is possibly the best means for promoting harmony between administration and staff. The procedure of using policy as a working tool has already been discussed in Chapter 2.

STUDY GROUPS TO MEET SPECIFIC ISSUES

The two previous groups discussed have been general in nature, acting chiefly in a guiding and organizing capacity. Basic units of the structure underlying such organization are the study or work groups organized around a specific problem, need, or area involved in teacher education and growth. The basic assumption, of course, and one which can scarcely be challenged, is that teachers, like anyone else, learn best and grow best in an atmosphere of solving problems which are of direct interest to them coöperatively.

Study groups may be organized with any number of general aims, including the increase of personal competence, the development of co-operation among individuals with related responsibilities, and the working out of some specific action or series of actions. As indicated previously, such groups will generally function best as part of an overall planning structure, but even without general planning bodies, they may be organized independently to solve a particular problem.

WORKSHOPS IN SCHOOL SYSTEMS

One of the outstanding developments of recent years in the in-service education of teachers has been the growth of workshops. The essential features of a workshop are the consideration of practical, functional problems, informality of working conditions, sharing of all participants in developing study plans, and access to a wide range of resource material and resource people.

Workshops can be of many types and of wide variation in sponsorship. School systems may organize their own workshops, open only to their own staff or to others as well. The administration here must take the initiative in planning, in providing suitable working conditions, and in underwriting the cost. The problems are many, but schools which have instituted workshops have generally felt that the results far outweighed the costs.

Workshops may be conducted in coöperation with nearby institutions of higher learning, thus providing access to extensive library and academic resources. Even without such coöperation, however, most school systems contain individuals who can give excellent service on workshop staffs, thus providing growth and experience for themselves, in addition to the help they may give others. One of the jobs of the administration is to identify and make use of such persons.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AS AN AGENCY

New discoveries and understandings in the psychology of learning, as well as changing concepts of the objectives and functions of the modern school system, have stimulated broad changes in curriculum. This area is a splendid one for advancing the in-service education of teachers through participation in curriculum-development groups. A teacher who has helped study the problems of the modern curriculum, who has been instrumental in setting up curricular patterns, and who has taken and applied the results of his study to his own classroom has inevitably grown in educational stature and understanding. Curriculum-development groups may be organized within individual schools or may represent the entire system. In either case, their efficient functioning will depend to a large extent upon the leadership and coöperation provided by the administration, both of the entire system and of the particular school or schools involved.

MEETING THE PROBLEM THROUGH PERSONNEL STUDIES

Regardless of proclaimed educational philosophy or financial ability of the district, the success of any school system depends ultimately upon personnel factors. To determine existing personnel relationships, morale, qualifications, training, duties and responsibilities, satisfactions and dissatisfactions, an organized study is essential. Obviously, to obtain an accurate picture in such a study, coöperation is necessary—cooperation among administration, faculty, supervisors, nonteaching personnel, and probably some neutral lay persons.

The personnel study should be both quantitative and qualitative, as discussed earlier in this chapter. In line with the principles of democracy in education, wide representation of personnel elements will

help solve personnel problems, and in the solving contribute both directly and indirectly to staff development and growth. Perhaps even more in this type of study than in others will enlightened administrative leadership be important.

COÖPERATIVE EFFORTS BETWEEN SCHOOL SYSTEMS

The fact that educational problems are likely to be quite similar from school to school offers an excellent chance for school systems to coöperate in solving their problems. Such coöperation is not too common at present, owing to traditional patterns of unilateral action and to varying educational philosophies, but it seems to be increasing. Neighboring small school systems especially could work together advantageously, pooling their resources.

Coöperation presents a number of problems, perhaps the chief one being agreement on the areas to be studied. A friendly, helpful attitude on the part of the central administration of each coöperating school system is essential, and must be communicated to the working groups. As in any other type of in-service study, staff members who participate in the coöperative effort will learn a great deal through the interchange of ideas, perhaps even more than in a single-system study, since the co-operating schools will exhibit actual operating examples of various types of educational procedure.

COMMUNITY PROBLEMS AS AN IMPLEMENT

One of the significant developments in modern education is the recognition that, in a democracy, schools cannot and should not be isolated from the community. From that premise has come an increased interest in school-community relationships and widespread efforts both to use the community as a school laboratory and to use the schools as a coöperating agent in solving common school-community problems.

Aside from the obvious direct advantage of coöperative improvement of school and community conditions, the experience of working together with lay citizens will inevitably broaden the outlook and understanding of teachers. The day of the cloistered specialist in the public schools is past, and any means which helps toward the integra-

tion of the teaching staff and the community in which they teach is to be recommended.

Throughout the process of school-community action runs the thread of administrative leadership and direction. The educational administrator who looks upon community problems both as a challenge to, and an opportunity for, the schools will gain not only increased respect for the schools, but valuable experience for his staff.

The previous analysis has not been fully exhaustive but suggests the nature of projects that have good promise if properly developed, and if processes involving democratic leadership and participation are employed. They are based on the theory that persons grow in the process of problem solving. Such growth is probably closely associated with such aspects of each venture as participation, responsibility, interest, and application of the results.

EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAM FOR STAFF GROWTH AND IMPROVEMENT

Evaluation is recognized as a difficult process. Its most valuable relationships occur in the group itself as it appraises its own action. Such a procedure is somewhat like trying to write contemporary history, and yet it is a necessary procedure, since a staff cannot wait until the children it teaches graduate from school and enter adult life to determine the effectiveness of its procedures. Frequently, certain outward manifestations are the best evidences of the positive results of programs designed to obtain growth and development. Some of these for which an evaluation group might look are:

A. Successes in the in-service program itself

1. The staff has grown in understanding of child growth and development
2. The ability of staff members to work democratically with others has improved
3. Planned educational activities have been carried out
4. New problems are discovered and delineated

B. Changes in educational practices

1. Change in educational practices has actually taken place
2. A consensus for further group action has been developed

3. Pupil-teacher relationships show improvement
4. Members of the staff cooperate more readily
- C. Changes in people who were involved
 1. The staff has grown in social understanding
 2. Wider participation has been developed
 3. Staff morale is visibly improved
 4. Individuals have found satisfaction in personal achievement
 5. Better lay and board support is in evidence
 6. Relationships between administrators, supervisors, and teachers are improved
 7. Attitudes are changed on certain issues which have been problems
- D. Improved educational outcome
 1. Community resources are being more widely used
 2. Pupil progress is improved
 3. Pupil adjustments are improved
 4. Requests that similar studies continue develop spontaneously
 5. The majority of the staff has become interested in the total school program

Obviously not all of these items would apply to any single project or program, and other items not listed should be considered. The process of setting up *expected outcomes* at the outset of a project or program will also assist in its later evaluation.



CHAPTER 10

Economic and Contractual Relationships

Teaching is a job involving physical and nervous demands that few positions can equal. It is work that offers a variety of opportunity. It is stimulating and adventurous. It is important, with practically the entire population coming into contact with it at some time or another.

There are many attractions in educational work which make it a desirable career in general. The surroundings in which one works are definitely superior. The work, even though exacting and demanding, is varied. Colleagues are generally congenial. Social position is respectable. Teachers can have the feeling of doing something very much worth-while.

In spite of these and other intangible rewards of teaching, there never has been, nor is there now, an adequate supply of good teachers. These satisfactions and rewards are important, but they do not buy bread and butter, pay the landlord, or clothe the family. This chapter is devoted to economic and contractual relationships, with a report of actual conditions and some consideration of proposals for improvement.

CURRENT ECONOMIC STATUS

It is generally agreed that so long as spending remains high, business prosperity will continue. There is nothing that foretells of an early decline from the present high levels of prices and wages.

The plague of the teaching profession is the failure of its members to share fully in the rise of the level of national income. In times of depression, public employees feel the pinch later and somewhat less severely than employees of industry. On the other hand, our history has been one of short depressions and long ground swells of prosperity. The net effect has been to limit most of the advances in teachers' salaries to that which keeps them about where they are in the economic scale.

WHAT IT COSTS TO LIVE

The meaning of the phrase "cost of living" is most elusive. There is not full agreement among economists on methods of defining and measuring the various elements that must be considered. Prices, commodities and services, quantity and quality, and the level of living (standard of living) are variables. The study of any aspect of the cost of living is not a job for the amateur.

Studies by experts, including the Heller Committee, the Haynes Foundation, and the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics may help some in trying to determine "what it costs to live."

The Heller Committee estimated family budgets for San Francisco, for four-person families (man, wife, and two children), in September, were, in round numbers:

Executive	\$12,000
White collar worker	5,000
Wage earner	4,000 ¹

An exceedingly rough estimate of the probable cost of these budgets in September, would be that the first would exceed \$13,750,

difficulty in securing teachers for positions in certain industrial subjects that are open only to men. It is encouraging, however, to note that this practice is much less common than it was when over half of the school systems made salary differentials on the basis of sex.

Despite the strong arguments for equal pay for men and women, stemming from democratic theory and morale among personnel, the

TABLE 18. Extent to Which City School Systems Have Official Salary Schedules

Items 1	Population Range of Cities						Total	
	500,000 and over 2	100,000 to 499,999 3	30,000 to 99,999 4	10,000 to 29,999 5	5,000 to 9,999 6	2,500 to 4,999 7	Number 8	Percent 9
School systems having official salary schedule:	100%	100%	98%	99%	91%	82%	1,472	91%
Adopted by local board	(94)	(97)	(90)	(80)	(71)	(58)	(1,177)	(73)
Prescribed by state law	(6)	(3)	(8)	(19)	(20)	(24)	(295)	(18)
School systems having no official salary schedule	0	0	2	1	9	18	143	9
Number of cities reporting	100% 16	100% 78	100% 238	100% 344	100% 394	100% 545	1,615	100% --

principle is challenged as unsound in terms of supply and demand. It is argued that the principle of equal pay tends to reduce the number of men entering and remaining in the profession.

Prior to the middle of the 19th century, teaching was predominantly a man's occupation. In 1880, only 43 percent of the public school teachers were men; by 1890, 30 percent; and since 1900, the proportion has ranged between 14 and 22 percent.⁸ It was after 1900, with men already a small minority, that proposals for equal pay began and became a reality.

Teachers' salaries are so low that most boards of education today find it hard to attract and retain competent men as teachers. Whether there are few men teachers because salaries are low, or whether teachers' salaries are low because so many teachers are women, is a debatable question. Where equal pay also means adequate pay, as in a few communities where the teaching schedule approaches professional levels, the shortage of men teachers seems to be less.

One cannot help but be pleased with the decrease of salary discrimination on the basis of race in cities where Negro teachers are employed. Ten years ago 55 percent of the systems employing Negroes paid them less than white teachers with the same training and experience. Less than 10 percent currently follow this practice.

A different type of racial differential is noted in the fact that many systems do not employ Negro teachers at all. The number of systems employing Negroes is increasing.

In some communities where the basic salary schedule is so low as to result in extreme hardship on families of teachers with dependents, provision is made for a family or dependency allowance. This practice is rare with the largest proportion in cities of five thousand to ten thousand in population. There is much variety of practice among cities having dependency differentials. Some schedules limit the differentials to men teachers. Women teachers with dependent children are eligible for allowances in about three-fifths of the cities with schedules of this type. In some, women with dependent husbands or teachers with dependent parents are entitled to allowances. Many of these plans are still experimental.

An allowance for dependents is a debatable issue. It is clearly not fair to assume that women teachers do not have dependents. One study of the N.E.A. Research Division has shown that 52 percent of the urban women and 43 percent of the rural women have dependents.⁹ While the average dependency load for married men teachers is higher than for women teachers, the substantial dependency load among women teachers cannot be ignored. If an allowance plan is adopted, it should be available to all employees regardless of sex.

There is considerable doubt that the American public is ready to accept any type of dependency allowance for public employees, with the possible exception of military personnel. Both in public and private employment, it has been accepted practice for the employer to pay the salary necessary to get the job done. At least theoretically, the pay is related to the preparation and skill required. Actually, supply and demand of manpower, the organization of employees, the cost of living,

and social prestige of the occupation, as well as other factors, affect this standard.

Extra Pay for Extra Work. A persistent problem of salary policy is the question of paying for services rendered by teachers beyond the normal teaching load. In principle, the work to be done should be

TABLE 19. Three Bases for Salary Differentials Among Teachers of Equal Training and Experience

Practice 1	500,000 and over 2	Population 100,000 to 499,999 3	Range of Cities 30,000 to 99,999 4	10,000 to 29,999 5	5,000 to 9,999 6	2,500 to 4,999 7	Total Number 8	Percent 9
Are men teachers paid more than women teachers of equal training and experience?								
Yes	0%	5%	12%	20%	22%	23%	315	20%
No	100	95	88	80	78	77	1,283	80
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	—	100%
Number of cities reporting 16		78	238	337	391	538	1,598	—
Are white teachers paid more than Negro teachers of equal training and experience?								
Yes	0%	0%	9%	12%	10%	13%	37	9%
No	100	100	91	88	90	87	385	91
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	—	100%
Number of cities reporting that Negro teachers were employed 16	16	67	98	82	72	87	422	—
Are salary differentials allowed for teachers with dependents?								
Yes	0%	0%	4%	8%	11%	8%	128	8%
No	100	100	96	92	89	92	1,476	92
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	—	100%
Number of cities reporting 16		78	237	343	394	536	1,604	—

divided among the teachers so that each does a fair share and no one is overworked. In practice, principally due to lack of funds which results in insufficient personnel, many systems overload certain teachers and then pay for the extra work. Other systems equalize time schedules insofar as possible and give no extra compensation.

For many years, this question revolved around the demands of athletic coaches, whose assignments many times required unusual hours and duty on weekends. This discontent spread to band and choral instructors, dramatic coaches, newspaper and yearbook sponsors, and

the like, who also carried full teaching assignments. For many years, these activities were classified as "extracurricular." This is not true today. Today, they are so much a part of the curriculum that no clear line can be drawn. The problem, then, is not one of extra duties but one of developing criteria for determining a reasonable individual load and an equitable distribution of the load among all personnel.

The idea of extra pay for extra duties probably had its origin in an effort to provide additional money for men teachers, and in order to meet the supply-and-demand problems in fields where there was a shortage of manpower. These pressures still exist. They have been overcome, to some extent, by the general improvement of salary schedules and by an increase in the miscellaneous special functions of the so-called academic teachers.

A majority of teachers prefer to have the same basic salary opportunity in the schedule. About two-thirds favor equalized loads over a plan of extra pay for extra work.¹⁰ Most teachers recognize the difficulties involved in placing a price tag on each extra assignment. Many prefer to use unassigned time for professional activities other than sponsoring a club or other student activity. Clearly, there is a need for detailed examination of teacher load as a total problem and arriving at criteria which insofar as possible would eliminate the "extra" label, since theoretically practically all of these activities are a part of the total school curriculum.

THE SINGLE SALARY SCHEDULE

One outgrowth of the equal-pay principle is the so-called "single salary schedule" for elementary and secondary school teachers—"single schedule" in the sense that it offers the same salary range to individuals with similar professional education and experience, regardless of grade or subject taught. Sometimes, it is called a "preparation schedule," since college preparation is given major emphasis in placement of individuals in salary classifications.

Before 1919, no cities had single salary schedules. By 1922, approximately one-sixth of the cities had equalized schedules for ele-

mentary and high school teachers¹¹ and currently, 97 percent of the salary schedules in use are of the single salary type.¹²

The single salary schedule represents the best thinking of the profession to date. Teaching should represent a career. The quality of work should increase with professional maturity. These assumptions are recognized by credit for experience. The social and economic posi-

TABLE 20. Extra Pay for Extra Duties

Items 1	Population Range of Cities						Total Number 8	Percent 9
	500,000 and over 2	100,000 to 499,999 3	30,000 to 99,999 4	10,000 to 29,999 5	5,000 to 9,999 6	2,500 to 4,999 7		
Higher salaries or supplemental pay granted for the following special assignments:								
Coaches of athletics	69%	78%	87%	88%	82%	79%	1,334	83%
Band or choral music leaders	38	40	54	59	55	51	862	53
Coaches of dramatics	19	19	34	44	38	33	581	36
Sponsors of school papers, yearbooks, etc.	13	14	28	40	32	26	482	30
Number of cities reporting	16	78	238	344	394	545	1,615	—
Comparison of practice of granting supplemental pay for extra duties between 1940 and 1950:								
More extensive in 1950	56%	31%	46%	52%	47%	40%	725	45%
About the same	44	65	49	45	50	57	836	52
Less extensive in 1950	0	4	5	3	3	3	54	3
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	—	100%
Number of cities reporting	16	78	238	344	394	545	1,615	—

tion of teaching can be raised only by improved professional preparation. The single salary schedule emphasizes this preparation.

Although the single salary schedule represents the best thinking of the profession to date, teaching may be given a greater number of complex duties which will require a readjustment of salary principles in relation to the profession's preparation and social obligations. Such changes would result in salary schedules far different from current practice.

MERIT RATING OR INCENTIVES TO PROFESSIONAL STUDY

Probably the term "merit rating" has no common meaning. Most teachers object to the application of existing merit rating techniques to salary schedules. The National Education Association has gone on record against the practice. Too often merit rating linked to salary schedules has meant control or reduction of total school costs. Some laymen bent on reducing taxes would have "a few teachers at good pay and the majority at rates which will satisfy our ideas of taxation and governmental costs." Schedules in which a satisfactory rating is required in order to receive the annual increment, or continuing to advance on the schedule after a number of unrestricted years, is based on receiving "superior" ratings, have caused teachers to frequently feel that political pull instead of merit may possibly have been a determining factor. This is particularly true when the number of teachers securing such ratings are limited in number.

Salary provisions which will stimulate the effort on the part of teachers already in service to reach the highest possible plane of professional achievement, which will stimulate and serve as a justification for making more adequate preparation and give it standing in the public mind are needed. If the "reward" of the merit rating does this, then perhaps we are needlessly disturbed about this type of salary schedule. Probably, too few in each system have been so recognized.

If it is the purpose of salary provisions to "encourage" or "impel," then the current trends to include recognition or incentive for professional growth are significant. Incentive provisions are generally objective in nature and in no way violate the single salary principle. Table 21 reports on a number of these devices related to salary policies.

The types of activities that may be recognized in fulfilling professional growth requirements are listed in Table 22. In addition to college courses, recognition, in order of frequency, is given for educative travel, committee work, publications, and for outstanding service in professional associations of teachers.

No consistent differences on the basis of city size are noted. On a few items, the smaller cities seem to be slightly more liberal than the

TABLE 21. Salary Policies That Stimulate Teachers to Continue Professional Training

Policy 1	Population Range of Cities						Total Number 8	Percent 9
	500,000 and over 2	100,000 to 499,999 3	30,000 to 99,999 4	10,000 to 29,999 5	5,000 to 9,999 6	2,500 to 4,999 7		
Preparation schedule is in effect, with higher salaries for teachers with higher levels of preparation	81%	97%	97%	97%	95%	95%	1,400	96%
Teachers are required to submit evidence periodically of professional growth in order to earn regular annual increments	44	26	48	45	37	38	591	40
Salary schedule recognizes small blocks of credit so that enough credits can be earned in one or two summer sessions to result immediately in a permanent salary increase	13	10	22	23	20	23	312	21
Teachers are required periodically to submit evidence of professional growth in order to stay at the maximum salary	6	17	18	17	16	15	235	16
Teachers who attend summer school are given a cash bonus for that year only	0	1	5	10	9	8	112	8
Other practices ^a	0	0	6	6	0	0	2	6
Number of cities reporting	16	77	230	335	359	446	1,463	—

TABLE 22. Professional Activities Accepted As Fulfilment of Professional-Growth Requirements

Activity 1	Population Range of Cities						Total Number 8	Percent 9
	500,000 and over 2	100,000 to 499,999 3	30,000 to 99,999 4	10,000 to 29,999 5	5,000 to 9,999 6	2,500 to 4,999 7		
College courses (including summer school and extension)	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	619	100%
Educative travel	43	68	66	63	42	46	335	54
Committee work or special school assignments other than regular teaching duties	43	55	4	32	18	19	176	28
Publication of professional articles or books	43	36	30	25	11	14	125	20
Outstanding service in teachers professional associations	14	18	17	15	10	17	93	15
Other acceptable evidence of professional growth ^a	57	18	6	9	3	3	38	6
Number of cities requiring evidence of professional growth reporting activities accepted	7	22	118	155	136	181	619	—

large in interpreting various types of activities as promising evidence of professional growth. Slightly more of the cities having professional growth requirements are giving recognition to the various equivalents than were ten years ago. The proportion of the cities giving professional credit for educative travel and for committee work and special assignments showed a greater increase than the other activities listed.

FUNDAMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS IN SALARY DETERMINATION

After examination of the facts and principles set forth earlier in this section of the text, certain fundamental considerations are apparent. Our society is highly motivated economically. Most of its members are influenced in their choice of occupations by economic considerations as well as by a desire to serve humanity. The service motive alone cannot be counted on to attract and hold an adequate supply of teachers qualified to provide the high quality of education which society requires.

Salary provisions must be high enough to attract and hold people with able minds and strong personalities. Unless salaries for teachers are competitive with those paid in industry, business, and other professions, the quality of the teaching profession will suffer. Salary provisions must be high enough to justify initial professional preparation of four years of college training and a fifth year before acceptance to full professional status. Salary provisions must be high enough to make it possible for teachers to keep abreast of developments in education by participating in professional activities and by returning periodically to professionally accredited colleges and universities for further study. Salary provisions must also be high enough and stable enough to make it possible for teachers to become closely identified with the cultural, political, social, and economic life of their communities.

These are the responsibilities of society. Only as these conditions are met will teachers be able to give their full time, thought, and energies to the performance of their important professional functions. It is the inherent obligation of teachers to continue their professional growth. The professional teacher should use his daily experiences and all available resources to improve his worth as an individual, to refine his techniques and procedures, and to enrich his qualities of leadership.

On February 18, the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, guided by fundamental considerations such as those above, adopted the following policies:

1. The best interests of the children, the public, and the teaching profession will be served if every responsible administrative unit establishes definite professional salary schedules. The establishment and essential revision of such schedules usually will be most satisfactory if arrived at coöperatively by school boards, school administrators, and teachers. The application of the schedule should be consistent throughout.
2. Teachers of comparable preparation and experience should receive comparable salaries, men and women alike, without discrimination between those in urban and rural schools, or among those in elementary, secondary, and higher education. Teaching loads should be brought into reasonable adjustment. Superintendents, consultants, and other administrative and supervisory employees should be paid salaries as rewarding as those paid to employees with comparable responsibilities in the general community.
3. The initial position of each teacher on the salary schedule should be determined by his amount of preparation and years of experience, with reasonable credit being given for teaching experience in other school systems, whether in the same state or in other states.
4. Such a schedule should provide beginning salaries of \$3200 to \$3600 a year for four-year college graduates without teaching experience, but professionally prepared to teach. Beginning salaries in the schedule should provide for a differential of \$300 or more for each additional year of acceptable preparation.
5. To secure and retain competent teachers in service, annual salary increases which meet the following criteria are recommended:
 - a. Annual salary increases should start with the second year of service;
 - b. For each additional year of acceptable education, the amount and number of the annual increments should be increased;
 - c. The increases should bring each teacher's salary to a level at least twice that of the initial salary within fifteen years;
 - d. Salary schedules should enable teachers with more than five years of acceptable professional preparation with successful experience and superior usefulness to the community to receive annual salaries of \$8,000 or more.¹⁸

While the general principles have remained constant, the initial and maximum salaries have recently been recommended to range from \$4,000 to \$9,000. This change grows out of living cost rises and acute supply and demand problems.

EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES IN RELATION TO CONTRACTS

The welfare of the schools requires that the rights and responsibilities both of the teacher and the board of education be clearly defined and established on principles that recognize a professional status for teachers. Both school officials and teachers should realize the need for carrying out the full letter of the law governing contracts and terms of employment.

The first regular employment of the new teacher is almost always for a single school year, with his chances for reappointment subject to the outcome of the year's experience. In some systems the question of reappointment is reopened every year until the end of the teacher's service. In others, the teacher who gives efficient and satisfactory service during a trial period goes on permanent or indefinite tenure of employment that continues as long as his service is efficient and satisfactory.

At one time nearly all city school systems followed the plan of electing all teachers annually and of not employing any for more than one year at a time. Under a procedure of this type no reason has to be given for not renewing a contract. A board of education does not have to dismiss an unwanted teacher; it may simply not reemploy him.

A continuing contract of the spring-notification type is another plan for governing the term of employment. This plan requires that the teacher be notified by a specified date if his services are not desired for the following year, otherwise his contract continues automatically for at least another year. The responsibility for notification lies with the board of education. This type of continuing contract is distinguished from protective continuing contracts and permanent tenure arrangements chiefly by the fact that it permits dismissal at the end of any year, with no statement of reason, provided the notification has been made in accordance with the provisions of the law.

The most common type of plan establishes permanent tenure after a probationary period of one or more years. The usual probationary period is three years. Usually the school board may discharge a teacher at the end of any year during the probationary period without showing cause. If the board reemploys the teacher at the close of the probationary period it places him on a protective continuing contract or on permanent tenure depending upon the particular system. The board cannot dismiss the teacher at any time thereafter except upon proved charges of incompetency, insubordination, immorality, or other specified causes. The teacher is entitled to a hearing and may appeal to higher authority such as the courts or chief state school official.

The extent to which each of these three plans are used in city school systems is shown in Table 23. Annual election, now relatively rare, is used by 15 percent of the cities; spring-notification contracts required by 28 percent; and substantial majority of 56 percent are using protective continuing contracts or have permanent tenure.

These figures are quite different from the practice in earlier years.

In only 28 percent of the cities had tenure or protective continuing contracts; in 40 percent; while currently 56 percent have such protection.

TEACHER TENURE

Extending back to at least 1799, it was an American political procedure to "throw the rascals out!"—"to the victor belongs the spoils." Then gradually there arose the idea that the "spoils system" was uneconomical and inefficient. Many governmental employees were recognized as technicians—persons of training who became more useful to the public when they could combine long experience with their technical training. Beginning in 1880, substantial efforts have been made to protect federal employees. Subsequently, states passed civil service laws and set up commissions in order to insure an orderly process in the selection, appointment, necessary removal, and eventual retirement of state employees. Local governments, cities and counties, have also adopted civil service programs.

Paralleling but differing somewhat from "civil service" has been the movement to provide security for teachers.

WHAT IS TENURE?

The word is defined as "the fact, manner, or means of holding possession or control of that which is one's own; such as tenure of office." A statutory requirement that teachers be employed on annual contracts is a "tenure law" in the dictionary sense; but a "teacher tenure law" usually refers to statutory provisions securing a position to the teacher except for stated reasons and until the teacher's services are terminated in an orderly way, by a specified procedure.

Rather than being employed for one school year at a time, after serving a probationary period, teachers are employed for an indefinite

TABLE 23. Practices Governing the Term of Employment for Teachers

Practice 1	500,000 and over 2	Population Range of Cities					Total Num- ber 8	Per- cent 9
		100,000 to 499,999 3	30,000 to 99,999 4	10,000 to 29,999 5	5,000 to 9,999 6	2,500 to 4,999 7		
Tenure or protective con- tinuing contract	94%	72%	67%	59%	57%	46%	908	56%
Spring-notification type con- tinuing contract	0	14	17	28	31	33	447	28
Annual election	6	11	15	12	12	21	251	15
Periodic elections other than annual	0	3	1	1	•	•	9	1
Number of cities reporting	100% 16	100% 78	100% 238	100% 344	100% 394	100% 545	— 1615	100% —

length of time, so long as they are competent and satisfactory. They are then called "tenure teachers." If, after attaining tenure status, a teacher later conducts himself, professionally or personally, in such a way that the school board wishes to dismiss him, a properly drafted tenure law requires the board to charge the teacher, in writing, with his specific deficiencies. The teacher, then knowing the reasons for his dismissal, may have legal counsel and testimony of witnesses in his defense. If the board finds that the charges are proved by the evidence and if the teacher is unconvinced of his guilt, he may under most tenure laws appeal for rehearing to a higher school administrator or the courts. This is recognized tenure procedure. It seeks to protect good teachers from unfair dismissal but at the same time, and highly important, provides a just method for eliminating unfit teachers.

An indication of the growing usefulness and acceptability of tenure is shown by its spread in the last twenty-five years. In only 5 states had state tenure laws of general application, while 35 had no tenure laws of any type. Today, at least 31 states have generally applicable state tenure laws with only thirteen having no tenure laws at all.

WHY TENURE?

The National Education Association for many years has been committed to the principle of tenure for all instructional personnel. As far back as 1887, the *Proceedings* of the Association carried a committee report urging that the subject of teachers' tenure of office be given publicity, in the belief that necessary legislation would result. The permanent platform of the NEA has contained for many years the following statement on tenure of service: "Teachers, regardless of position or title, are professional workers in a common cause and have certain responsibilities and rights. The interests of the child and of the profession require: . . . Teachers who are protected from discharge for political, religious, personal, or other unjust reasons by effective tenure laws."¹⁴

Based upon the principle that the "purpose and justification of tenure are the betterment of teaching and the improvement of teaching conditions,"¹⁵ one may set forth the reasons for tenure under four general headings: improving the educational opportunities for children, eliminating the incompetent teacher, advantages to the whole community, and benefits to the profession.

By eliminating from the schools the influence of selfish and destructive pressure groups in localities, educational opportunities of children are improved. Tenure helps to eliminate such influence. Political, religious, and economic groups of citizens sometimes try "to run the schools" and to compel the school board to dismiss teachers who do not follow the tenets of their own particular group. Individual citizens and groups sometimes seek to get rid of teachers, who through partici-

pation in community activities, oppose them on local controversial issues. The authors believe that children attending public schools in a democratic country are entitled to have the schools operated for the benefit of all, rather than for any special group or influence. A better educational environment is possible only when teachers, through reasonable academic freedom, have the right to present varied backgrounds and points of view. Any program, such as a tenure law, which frees the schools from the combination of prejudicial individuals and groups is an aid to democratic education.

Through the provision of a probationary period, a procedure for the elimination of incompetent teachers is provided. Without tenure, an incompetent teacher may be retained because of popularity among students or residents, making it difficult for the school board to dismiss him as the years go on. Under a good tenure law, the board must consider carefully before giving a teacher tenure status, and as a result, incompetents are eliminated during this period. Pupils are entitled to competent teachers. A tenure law protects children by the resultant care in the selection of teachers.

Teachers are good citizens and an asset to community life. Without tenure protection, an individual teacher may move so frequently from one community to another that he can scarcely become acquainted with and interested in community affairs, much less participate in community activities. When security through tenure prevails, teachers are more likely to become an integral part of their respective communities and bring benefits which regularly accrue from the long-term residence of worthwhile persons.

Tenure protection benefits the profession of teaching. Employment conditions under tenure encourage a sense of security, which in turn stimulates the teacher to attain the highest standards of professional competence, without the fear of unjust dismissal. Tenure helps make teaching a profession, rather than a procession. Teaching, under proper tenure legislation, can become a life work rather than a stepping stone to some other occupation. When the professional level is raised in this manner, the most promising young people are encouraged to prepare for teaching and to remain in the profession.

Sound tenure legislation protects competent teachers from unfair

dismissals; incompetent teachers are dismissed by a fair and just procedure; community life is strengthened; educational opportunities for children are improved; and the teaching profession is both dignified and elevated.

WHAT DOES A GOOD TENURE LAW PROVIDE?

A good tenure law improves school morale, and protects the qualified teacher. It provides, at the same time, for the elimination of teachers who, because of incompetence or for other good reasons, should be removed. Both employers and employees should view tenure legislation as a part of modern educational practice.

All tenure laws require the teacher to be employed on a probationary basis for a definite period, usually three years. The law should state whether probationary teachers are to be employed by annual election or by a spring notification type continuing contract; whether such teachers may be dismissed without written statement of reasons; and how much notice is due. Some of the existing tenure laws are indefinite in these respects.

Teachers who have fulfilled probationary requirements satisfactorily should be granted tenure status automatically at the end of the probationary period. In an attempt to evade the law, by those who disapprove of tenure principles, some teachers are dismissed at the end of the probationary period rather than given tenure status. In some instances these same teachers are reemployed as probationary teachers. Such practices not only tend to be illegal but are detrimental to the morale of the staff, and should be prevented by legislation so designed to make it impossible to evade the law. Legislative assurance should be given tenure teachers that before dismissal sufficient notice, opportunity for self-defense in a hearing before the school board, and the right to appeal from the decision of the board of education to a tenure board, higher educational authority, or the courts is given.

All tenure laws prohibit the dismissal of tenure teachers except for cause. In some laws, these causes are enumerated. These may be incompetency, neglect of duty, insubordination, unprofessional conduct, immorality, and physical or mental disability. Other laws merely state that tenure teachers may be dismissed for good, reasonable, or just

cause. There are wide differences of opinion in regard to the relative merits of these two types of provisions. There are commendable arguments on both sides of the question. In the opinion of the authors, it is a better law that enumerates the specific causes for dismissal.

A good tenure law will provide a procedure including notice, hearing, and appeal, mandatorily applicable to cases of proposed demotion and suspension, as well as to dismissals. Reduction in salary should be prohibited except when finances of the district require a modification in the salary schedule. Demotion includes reduction in salary as well as lowering of rank. Individual members of the instructional staff should be protected against unfair reprisals in either fashion.

It is essential that the tenure law provide some source of appeal for review of evidence brought against a teacher in the school board hearing. This is especially true in the event a board of education may be prejudiced or may give undue weight to inconsequential matters. Appeal may be to a higher educational authority, such as the state commissioner of education, or directly to the courts.

School boards may be confronted with the necessity to reduce the number of teaching positions or the abandonment of certain type of teaching service due to economic emergencies or depleted enrollment. The law should indicate the process for such emergencies. Such provisions might include:

1. A tenure teacher cannot be dismissed while a probationary teacher is retained in a position which the tenure teacher is qualified to fill.
2. Tenure teachers must be dismissed in reverse order of employment.
3. Such dismissed tenure teachers are to be given the opportunity for re-employment before probationary teachers are added to the staff.
4. Such dismissed teachers are to be given the opportunity for reemployment, in order of length of service.

Provisions, such as those above, will tend to eliminate the effect of residence, age, sex, marriage, race, religion, or political affiliation among teachers of similar experience or ability.

Tenure imposes an obligation on the teacher as well as upon the board of education. As the tenure teacher is protected from dismissal without cause, the board of education must be protected from the ten-

ure teacher's resignation at a moment's notice. Many tenure laws prohibit teachers from quitting during the thirty-day period before the opening of school, and, at other times during the year, require a certain notice before the effective date of the resignation. This provision is fair and just. Teachers must realize that with every right, there is a corresponding obligation.

LEADERSHIP AND RESPONSIBILITY

Many teachers feel that the school administrators, especially superintendents of schools, are the obstacles preventing their acquisition of tenure status. Many superintendents feel that they represent only the board of education and not the employees in the school system, while serving as the executive of the school board, the role of the school administrator is also as a liaison between employees and the school board. The superintendent should help the teachers meet standards acceptable to the boards of education, and should help the board maintain its standards without deviations for political or personal reasons.

The superintendent has the duty of recommending new teachers to the board of education for consideration and employment. Future troubles can be avoided by the selection of properly qualified teachers for recommendation as probationary teachers. During the probationary period, the administrative staff can do much to make the probationary teacher's work acceptable through helpful supervision, orientation programs, and provision for in-service growth. The whole staff, including experienced teachers, should be utilized in giving help to the beginning teacher. Frequent conferences should be arranged for the purpose of advising, building confidence, and preventing discouragement. Talents of new teachers should be discovered and used to a maximum degree by wise placements. Those who show little promise should be given as much help as possible, and warned of possible failure in sufficient detail to enable them to correct their weaknesses, if possible. Whether or not these in-service personnel procedures exist and are effective is largely dependent upon the superintendent.

The probationary period should be regarded as a part of the process of selection of teachers. At the end of the probationary period, the superintendent should recommend for tenure status those teachers who

have met the standards, or who show promise of developing into good teachers with added experience. The personnel officer has in his power the protection of the probationary teacher against unfair competition, against unwarranted criticism, and against dismissal without just cause. On the other hand, as great an obligation rests on the administrator to recommend the dismissal of an employee whose probationary service is unsatisfactory, as to reject, in the first place, the unpromising applicant.¹⁶

Classroom teachers and other members of the profession have an obligation to share in developing and enforcing standards for the selection of qualified teachers and for professional methods of removing the incompetent, whether on probationary or permanent tenure.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS

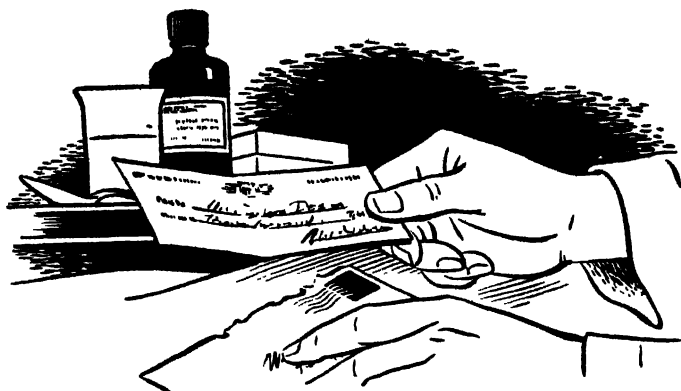
In spite of the fact that about forty of the states have laws granting tenure to some teachers, all teachers do not have tenure. Probably, the systems that do not have tenure are those that need it most. In states where tenure laws do not include all teachers, it is almost without exception that the rural districts are those to which the law does not apply. The principles of tenure are just as applicable in these systems as they are in the town and city systems.

There is an increasing consideration of the problem of administrative tenure. This is particularly true as it relates to the position of superintendent. In many instances, tenure, held by the administrator, if any, is tenure as a teacher. Without a doubt, some plan for tenure as administrators should be developed, but probably upon a different basis from that currently provided for teachers. Such a plan must include specific certification requirements.

While the emphasis on tenure provisions has been primarily for teachers, other school employees, including clerical and custodial employees, are entitled to security of position, and an orderly method, by specified procedure, for the termination of employment. In spite of

the fact that many systems voluntarily follow similar practices, legally applicable only to teachers, when dealing with the nonteaching personnel, there is still much to be desired.

Personnel administrators can well afford to work for laws and policies that guarantee equal rights and privileges for all members of the profession and all school personnel.



CHAPTER 11

Policies and Practices to Improve Employment Conditions

A teacher or any other employee cannot be happy and effective if he is working under conditions which cause worry or anxiety. Probably no one factor causes worry and anxiety more than the lack of security. An employee has security when he is permitted to live in keeping with his work and has protection for his family against the hazards of life.

To secure better teachers and retain them in the profession, to give maximum security and satisfaction, to promote improvement of the work of the individual, careful attention to the policies and practices relating to employment conditions which are of so much concern to the teachers themselves must be given. Among these are those which relate to work loads, retirement, leaves of absence, health, and insurance.

At one time such practices or benefits were cited as justification for low salaries. Teachers were told, "Your salaries are lower than in

other occupations but look at all those special benefits you have." As such policies and practices became increasingly effective in nongovernmental employment, they became increasingly justified as a part of the normal employment pattern for teachers, but in no sense as an offset to the need for adequate salaries. Those policies, practices, and benefits mentioned above as well as some others will be discussed in this chapter.

TEACHING LOAD

The teacher at work with a group of pupils is thinking about pupil responses and reactions: about how this child is growing in ability to think, this one becoming better able to work with others, or how to help another gain self-control. He does not think about what he is doing as a part of a "teaching load."

"Teaching load" is generally meant to include all activities which take the time of the teacher and which are related either directly or indirectly to his professional duties, responsibilities, or interests. • The term is not a satisfactory one to describe the sum total of a classroom teacher's work, but it has found its way into the vocabulary of education and is being used in this text. .

Simple measures commonly used in surveying teaching load are average class size, pupil-teacher ratio, and number of classes per day (in high schools). In the main, these measures are unsatisfactory and present an incomplete picture since they do not take into account numerous factors which influence the time and energy that a teacher devotes to his work.

According to teacher opinions, a class of 11 to 13 is too small for efficient instruction and a class of 32 or 33 is too large. Teachers believe the ideal class to be one of 25 pupils, although if the students are grouped homogeneously the class size could be larger.¹ The average class size currently is probably 30 to 32 pupils. Administrators generally have expressed the desire to reduce class size although there is no agreement on the ideal size of a class. In physical education, chorus, band, and orchestra classes over 50 are rather common. As a factor in

teaching load, class size is probably not as important as is ordinarily believed.

The length of the average work week of elementary and secondary teachers is approximately the same. There is a difference in the amount of time required for miscellaneous duties outside of scheduled time in the classroom. The greatest difference between elementary and second-

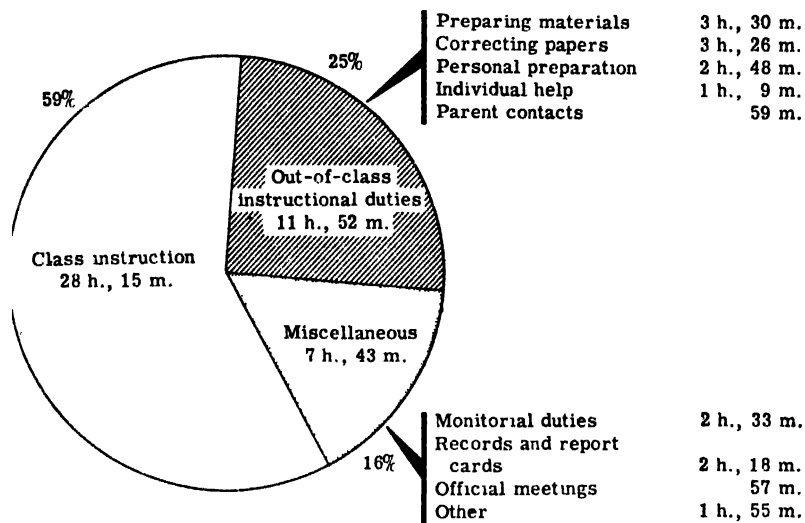


FIGURE 23. How the Elementary School Teacher Divides the Week (Average work-week of 47 hours, 50 minutes).

ary teachers is time spent conducting study halls, counseling on a definite schedule, coaching athletics, and sponsoring pupil organizations. Figures 23 and 24 summarize graphically the major uses of teacher time.

The degree of strain felt by teachers will be reflected not only through the teacher's actual load but also through the teacher's emotional reaction to that load. Some who are carrying a light load as measured by the number of pupils or hours of work may be under considerable strain, while others with what might be considered a

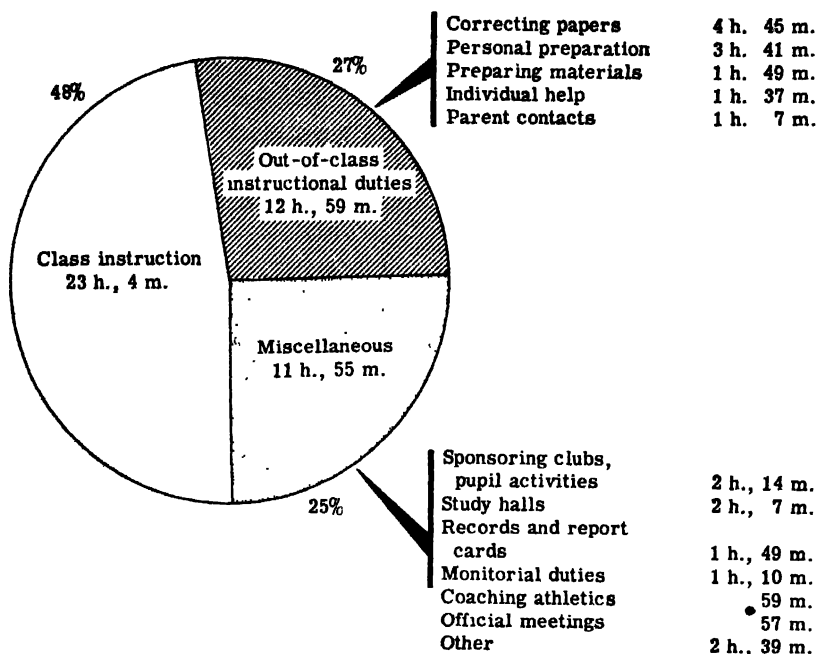


FIGURE 24. How the Secondary School Teacher Divides the Week (Average work-week of 47 hours, 58 minutes).

heavy load are under little or no strain. General factors affecting teaching load, listed in order of probable extreme pressure, are as follows:

1. Number or type of pupils
2. Inadequacy of school facilities
3. Requirements of extracurricular responsibilities
4. Clerical or administrative work
5. Requirements of instructional planning
6. Guidance and pupil-adjustment responsibilities
7. Professional improvement requirements
8. Changing emphasis in classroom methods and procedures
9. Required community relationships

At the secondary level "requirements of extracurricular responsibilities" will probably be as great a source of pressure as will the "number or type of pupil."

Conditions, some thought of as favorable, others as unfavorable, affect the teaching situation and tend to make the teaching load lighter or heavier. Teaching conditions that tend to lighten the teaching load include a friendly, sympathetic principal; adequate textbooks and supplies; a principal with insight into classroom problems; available audio-visual aids; appreciative, responsive pupils in the majority; teaching the preferred grade or subject; school library service; helpful supervisors; a forward-looking, professional principal; teacher having his own desk; a feeling that the load is divided fairly; participation in planning; and the teacher's extra duties being of a type preferred.

An inadequate supply of textbooks, a majority of pupils not appreciative or responsive, an unfriendly or unsympathetic principal, having no desk, and problems due to numbers of difficult pupils are the most common conditions that tend to make the teaching load heavy. Other factors tending to make a heavier load and which should be guarded against carefully are: excessively noisy classroom surroundings; school as a whole excessively overcrowded; frequent interruptions to class session; curriculum experiments not approved by the teacher; unsatisfactory clerical and custodial services; promotion standards not understood by the teacher; inadequate workroom facilities; school without full time principal; and inadequate rest-room facilities.

Without a doubt a majority of superintendents and principals are making efforts to measure the teaching load and to equalize assignments. This along with scheduling fewer special events and interruptions will tend to lighten the load. The increase in clerical staff and in the number of classroom teachers is also desirable. In light of the supply-and-demand problem discussed in Chapter 8, the increase in the number of teachers may be more idealistic than real.

For example an increase in the pupil counseling and guidance programs without a corresponding increase in staff will tend to increase

the teaching load. In-service education requirements, changes in curriculum practices and materials, and increased extracurricular activities will also tend to make the teaching load heavier.

WHAT IS TO BE DONE AND WHO IS TO DO IT?

There is no doubt that, on the average, teachers' loads are heavy, and that something must be done to lighten them. More teachers and other employees might be employed and more buildings built. In this way the number of pupils per teacher could be reduced. This method can be used only if more money for schools is secured and teachers available to staff them.

Services might be reduced, the school program simplified and streamlined so that there is less work to be done. The reduction of valid educational services would undoubtedly be opposed by teachers and parents alike. The question has been raised as to whether or not the school is taking on too many activities that might well be carried on by some other institution. If this be so, if such activities can be identified, and if other institutions will assume these obligations, then certain reductions in activities could be accomplished without impairment of the services and responsibilities to boys and girls.

Another alternative is to equalize the load of the existing program as equitably as possible among the teachers available and to facilitate the work of the teacher as far as possible.

The greatest immediate improvement is most likely to be made through adjustments within the existing framework of finances and school programs although efforts on all three lines are possible. The following basic procedures are desirable in undertaking such adjustments:

1. Considered policies should be adopted as to what constitutes a reasonable body of assignments for a classroom teacher
2. Facts should be available, in a form that makes analysis possible, of the total assignments of each teacher
3. Systematic study should be made of each teacher's assignments by means of a formula or other objective comparison as a basis for equalizing loads
4. Classroom teachers and administrators should undertake cooperative

efforts to solve the problems by becoming aware of the teacher load problem

5. Administrators and boards of education, on the basis of their knowledge of teaching load, should adopt no new school services until
 - a. Added personnel can be provided to carry the weight of the new undertaking, or
 - b. Old activities can be eliminated or curtailed in order to provide time for the new

For the best interests of education, for the welfare of boys and girls as well as for teachers, it is imperative that every effort be made to lighten and to equalize the work load of teachers. In dealing with this problem, all school employees have these responsibilities:

Superintendents can:

1. Recognize that the problem demands time and attention
2. Work with principals, employee organizations, and other groups in the effort to develop helpful policies

Principals can:

1. Recognize that the problem demands time and attention
2. Work with faculty groups in finding solutions to problems
3. Coöperate in system-wide studies

Employee-organization leaders can:

1. Schedule the topic for program discussions
2. Appoint committees and make studies that will lead to opening up the topic for attention and improvement

Classroom teachers can:

1. Arouse interest in studying the problem in their own schools or communities
2. Coöperate in local studies, by service on committees or by supplying information when requested
3. Do the very best they can, at a high professional level of effort, to meet the individual needs of the pupils in their classes, regardless of the size class they are teaching

RETIREMENT

In the last half of the nineteenth century, teachers formed mutual aid societies. At first, funds were contributed voluntarily as each case arose for the assistance of those in need. Later came the practice of

collecting funds in advance of the need. The first mutual aid association was the New York City Teachers' Mutual Life Assurance Association, founded in 1869. In 1887, the Old Age and Disability Annuity Association was founded by New York and Brooklyn teachers. Soon, the teachers of Boston, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, Baltimore, Washington, D.C., and several others followed the lead of the New York teachers. The first state-wide retirement plan was established in New Jersey in 1896.

In the early mutual aid plans, membership was voluntary. Even with the larger groups, the small contributions proved too meager to meet the demands; administration also became a problem. In 1895, New York City teachers secured legislation to permit deduction of funds from their salaries to be used for pensions, and the board of education was charged with the administration of the system. The public money so appropriated was regarded at first as a relief measure for the mutual aid plans, but as time went on, it became the sole or at least principal source of income for expanded funds. These systems were recognized as inadequate partly because the membership was voluntary, and partly because they were not established on a businesslike basis. After 1910, there was great activity to reorganize retirement plans and to establish new systems on sound financial principles.²

Public employees' retirement systems are now accepted, businesslike plans, enacted into law to improve public employment by helping aged or disabled public employees to retire from active service with a moderate, but assured, income for life. Although many types of public employees have retirement systems, probably teachers, policemen, and firemen are covered more generally than others.

Today, state-wide plans are in operation for teachers in all states except South Dakota. The number of local retirement systems to which teachers belong is somewhat uncertain. Many school districts operate plans for group retirement insurance or pension plans to supplement the state retirement benefits.

RETIREMENT PLANNING FOR PUBLIC EMPLOYEES

There is no standard or ideal form of retirement plan. A plan that has proved successful for one group of employees may not fulfill the requirements of another. Differences in occupational classification and employment conditions create certain problems for which provision must be made in order that an equitable and sound plan may be established. The underlying plan of operation, therefore, must be designed to meet the specific needs of the particular group to be covered.

There is, however, universal agreement that a properly constituted retirement plan must be based on what is known as actuarial principles. These principles comprehend sound financing and place the burden of cost on the generation of taxpayers which enjoys the services of the employees who will receive the benefits. Thus, serious embarrassment will be avoided in later years when the costs for the payment of those benefits have matured.

WHY A RETIREMENT PLAN?

Retirement planning is undertaken primarily to meet the conditions relating to and problems arising from: (1) superannuated employees, that is, employees who no longer can work with reasonable efficiency because of age; (2) disabled employees whose disability is due to occupational or nonoccupational causes; and (3) dependents of employees who die.

Various alternative methods have been used to meet these conditions. One obvious method is to retain the superannuated or disabled employees on the active payroll. This practice has been found to be unsatisfactory because of the adverse effect on the efficiency of the employees and on the morale of the service in general. This practice is known as a "hidden" pension system. Another method is that of demotion, which, at best, is only a temporary expedient, subject to limitations. A third method is to place the employees on a part-time or part-pay basis. Still a fourth method is to dismiss, without further compensation, employees who are superannuated or disabled. This method is unpopular where the public is the employer, and is definitely harmful to employee morale.

The limited usefulness and the many disadvantages of these methods have given rise to a systematic and well-defined plan of retirement and disability benefits, referred to as a retirement or pension plan. Under such a plan, a benefit is usually provided equal to a certain proportion of the employee's compensation, and payable at certain regular intervals of time, as an annuity. To meet the conditions created by death of employees, provision is also made for the allowance of benefits to dependents. It must be emphasized that a retirement plan does not create the problems incident to the hazards of old age, disability, or death; the problems created by these hazards exist among any group of employees. The purpose of a retirement plan or pension plan is to solve these problems in an orderly manner and on a sound financial basis.

OBJECTIVES OF A RETIREMENT PLAN

There are two fundamental objectives of a retirement plan. These are personnel and social. The personnel objectives may be summarized as follows: (1) to eliminate from the payroll superannuated and disabled employees who are, in fact, hidden pensioners, thereby removing employees who are no longer physically able to perform their work properly; (2) to aid recruitment by making the service more attractive to high-grade persons who might otherwise seek employment in private industry or in other governmental agencies providing retirement protection; (3) to make the service sufficiently attractive so that experienced persons of character and ability, already in the service, will not seek employment elsewhere; (4) to keep avenues of advancement open by eliminating superannuated employees, and thus improve employee morale.

The social objectives are: (1) to provide against insecurity in old age and during disability in the most economical manner according to an organized and systematic plan, equitably balanced for all persons covered; and (2) to obviate the need for relief grants, or "passing the hat" for the relief of survivors, particularly with respect to persons of low incomes, whose need is most urgent during periods of emergency.

These objectives are not accomplished merely by the existence of a retirement plan. The provisions of the plan must be designed to suit the conditions of the service. The governmental agency must use the

plan with the stated objectives in mind, making such periodic adjustments as are found necessary to meet changing economic and social conditions. Such changes should not be made because of political expediency or permitted to become a political football.

The immediate problem when the plan is adopted relates to persons in the service at that time. Certainly the employer gains little immediate good from a newly created plan if it considers future service of employees and future entrants into the service, and makes no provision for the past service of persons already on the payrolls who have reached or are approaching superannuation when the plan goes into effect. This class of employees constitutes an important major problem which must be met if a plan is to accomplish its objectives satisfactorily.

ADVANTAGES TO EMPLOYEE AND EMPLOYER

From the standpoint of the employees, the advantages of a retirement plan are obvious. If its provisions are adequate, and the plan is properly financed in accordance with sound principles, the employees may look forward to a reasonable income during their old age. If provision is made for disability, and protection is accorded the dependents in event of death, the employees are assured security for these contingencies as well. Thus, provisions are made for the three major hazards confronting the average worker: superannuation, disability, and death.

The advantages of a plan to the employer, however, are not always clearly understood. The objective of the state or municipality or school district, as an employer, is constantly to seek improvement of its working personnel. Some mention will be made of the more important considerations involved.

Unless death intervenes, every worker reaches a point when he is no longer capable of performing his best work because of superannuation or disability. In the absence of a retirement plan, the various alternative methods previously referred to are used to meet the problem of old-age inefficiency or disability. Or action is sometimes taken to discharge the employee. But in practice this course is not pursued because the discharge of an aged or disabled employee is repugnant. In-

stead, the employee is permitted to remain on the job. The effect of such a condition is that the employer is paying full salary and is charging the cost to his salary budget. Thus the employer is actually paying for a retirement plan even though none is in existence.

A retirement plan should not be considered as charity doled out to the aged employee. It represents a sound investment to the public as an employer. It constitutes an orderly means of providing for the retirement of employees at the end of their productive period with the use of a capital fund built up during the active service of the employees. It helps make public administration a career for the able man or woman who is attracted to it, but who hesitates to enter that service because of the lack of a definite prospect for financial independence. This is especially true of persons with special talents and proved ability.

The increasing complexity of governmental and regulatory functions makes it of utmost importance to secure and hold the best possible types of employees. The retirement plan can be of marked service in achieving that objective by stabilizing personnel and by preventing at least a portion of the losses which occur when trained and efficient employees leave the service because of superior opportunities elsewhere. Thus, positive gains accrue to the public as an employer in that (1) higher grade men and women are attracted to the state, municipal, or school service, (2) younger and more efficient employees replace those who are superannuated or disabled, and (3) economies and increased efficiency are secured for the public service.

COVERAGE

To call retirement systems to which teachers belong "teacher" retirement plans is a misnomer. Originally, many retirement systems for teachers covered the instructional staff only and sometimes only classroom teachers. Today it is the exception for systems to cover only the instructional staff. Most cover at least some of the other school employees, and many cover all public employees by the same system. Although teachers in every school system outside of South Dakota have membership in a retirement system, a few in almost every state are not members of any retirement system because they individually chose

exclusion when their retirement system was established. New employees are usually required to belong to retirement systems. The number of teachers in active service who have not joined a retirement system is negligible. It is accurate, therefore, to say that practically all public school teachers, outside of South Dakota, are members of a state or local retirement system.⁴

BENEFITS

The personal value of a retirement system is appreciated by its members increasingly as large numbers retire. Ten years ago there were approximately 35,000 living retirants who had retired from 43 systems; today, it is estimated, there are 130,000 living retirants who have been retired from 83 systems. The proportion who retire for disability or for age and service has remained almost constant—approximately 1 to 8.

In the national average allowance was \$70.50, but by the national average had passed the \$1,000-a-year mark, being \$84.50 a month. Today the average retirement benefit is in excess of \$96.00 per month. This represents a gain of 37.4 percent in the average retirement benefit since, with the current average based upon a much larger number of individuals than the average.

In evaluating these amounts it must be remembered that the averages include all living retirants regardless of the date of their retirement. Some included retired many years ago when active salaries were lower than those paid today, and in some instances on less liberal benefit formulas. Some retirants have had the benefit of increases in their allowances after retirement; others have not. Even when increases have been given, they frequently raise the benefits only of those receiving less than a minimum amount. These early retirements lower the average for the nation as a whole. An average of a particular year's retirants would show a considerably higher amount than is indicated by the average of all living retirants at any given time. As mortality cuts into the retirement rolls, the average retirement benefit received in the future by the remaining living retirants will be higher.

The amount paid for retirement in a particular system depends on

many factors, including salaries, and is not the sole measure of the merit of the retirement system. A system paying modest allowances with adequate financing thereof is in better condition than a system that is paying more generous benefits, if these are not adequately financed; the time may come when money is not available to continue paying these generous allowances.⁵

THE FUTURE OF PUBLIC-SCHOOL RETIREMENT

The direction of public-school retirement will depend largely upon the teaching profession, since the instructional staffs constitute the largest single group in most of these systems. Through local leadership, and the guidance of retirement administrators and actuaries, we may see the improvement of existing laws and more adequate financial support for benefits now provided and for those to be added. If the profession does not work toward these goals, the public-school-retirement movement may decline.

Two Immediate Problems. School employees should see to it that the state or city meets its obligations under laws which provide for the appropriation of funds. Current cost or cash disbursement plans should become partial if not fully reserved-type plans. Monies should be placed in reserve during the period the active service is rendered so that at the time of retirement full funds necessary to pay the retirement benefits are on hand. In this way, the cost is borne by those who received the benefit of the services rather than by taxpayers of the future. This item—full financial support—should be the primary program; it should take precedence over liberalization proposals.

It is essential that members of public-school-retirement systems become acquainted with the provisions of their own law and of the laws of other states. Members should examine their benefit formulas to determine whether the expected allowances will be paid upon retirement; an understanding of the cost of a retirement allowance may lead to proposals for increasing the member's contributions or the changing of the benefit formula. Legislatures would probably welcome a suggestion from teachers for increasing member's contributions and there-

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 9-11.

fore be more willing to accept general revision of the retirement law so as to put it on a sound financial basis.

The second need is for attention to the benefits now received by many retired school personnel—benefits below subsistence levels. The fact that these benefits are based primarily on prior service and on the lower salaries of many years ago is immaterial when the retired employee finds himself unable to live decently and pay his bills. The profession should work toward additional supplementary appropriations to raise these low retirement allowances. The reserves on hand and those to be appropriated in the future for the pension portion of the allowances to be paid to members who will retire should not be disturbed for this emergency purpose. Active members may find it to their personal advantage to help retired personnel obtain special legislation to raise their benefits.

The future of public-school retirement can be favorable if the teaching profession works toward the proper goals.

SOCIAL SECURITY THREATENS LOCAL AND STATE RETIREMENT PLANS

In the Congress of the United States passed the federal social security law. It was an attempt "to place a floor of security" under a major portion of those gainfully employed for salaries or wages. A minimum subsistence income was provided so that millions of people could be taken off the relief rolls. It did not apply to public employees—local, state, or federal.

Many public employees were protected by local and state retirement laws. In most cases these plans were designed to provide for retirement in case of disability or old age. They were adapted to the hazards and needs of each type of employment. They were, nearly always in principle and often in practice, more than "a floor of security." Teacher retirement plans are designed to improve the service of the schools and to provide sufficient retirement income to enable the teacher to live in dignified comfort as befits a professional person.

Beginning in there was extensive agitation to extend social

security to most employed persons, including public employees. In the decade from two major developments took place:

(1) local and state retirement systems increased in number and improved in the quality of their benefits; and (2) the social security benefits were improved and plans made for additional benefits comparable in some respects to those of public retirement plans.

These two movements came together in direct opposition when Congress considered H.R. 6000. This proposal provided that states could enter into voluntary contracts with the Social Security Administration to cover state and local employees under the old-age and survivors insurance title of the Social Security Act. In order to do this H.R. 6000 in its original form required a referendum among the members of each state or local retirement system.

State and local employees, through their organizations of all types, protested vigorously against this legislation. Safeguards for existing retirement systems were not included in the bill. The referendum provisions were ambiguous. Public employees saw the possibilities: (1) that existing retirement systems would be abandoned, or (2) that such systems would be cut back or frozen under the influence of the social security plan, if adopted by a state.

H.R. 6000 when enacted into law provided that the states could place under social security those employees *not* covered by state or local retirement systems, excluding only employees in positions covered by such retirement systems.

The new law did not satisfy everyone. Public employers, state legislators, and members of local councils of government units did not like to have some employees under social security and some under retirement systems. Most retirement systems cost more than social security. The new benefits under social security narrowed the gap between the benefits of social security and those offered under some retirement plans. Social security was no longer merely a "floor of security." A few relatively small groups thought that they needed social security to supplement their low retirement protection or to give them coverage when they changed residence from state to state.

At first it appeared there was no solution to these demands except through amendment of the federal law. Members of Congress and

public employee organizations were of the opinion that the law restrained any attempt to repeal state and local retirement laws. The Social Security Administration ruled otherwise. It held that if a state or local government repealed its retirement law and then passed the necessary enabling legislation, it could place those employees under social security. No referendum of the employees was necessary.

This interpretation began to have its destructive effect upon existing retirement systems in several of the states. Under this interpretation the South Dakota legislature repealed its state retirement system and placed teachers under social security only. Virginia and Mississippi repealed their retirement systems, accepted social security, and then passed statutes for a retirement system to supplement social security.

In two of these three states the decisions were made by state officials. Employees as a group were given no voice upon the proposed changes. Thus a pattern has been set up for state legislatures and other public officials: *Get rid of your local and state laws and social security will then be open to you.* Under the circumstances state legislatures in many states have appointed commissions to review their retirement systems for public employees. These groups have leaned toward recommendations that would lead either toward the South Dakota road (social security only for public employees) or the Virginia plan (social security plus a new retirement plan).

In view of these developments public employees were of the opinion that it was necessary to amend the existing Social Security Act to include stronger protective provisions. Clearly the public employees themselves must have a right to participate in making the decisions if their accrued rights and equities are to be protected. The Social Security Administration should be freed from the position of participating in the destruction of state and local retirement systems.

Public employees for many years through the leadership of the Joint Committee of Public Employee Organizations, composed of representatives of The National Council on Teacher Retirement (N.E.A.), the Municipal Finance Officers Association of the United States and Canada, the National Conference on Public Employee Retirement Systems, the Fraternal Order of Police, and the International Associa-

tion of Firefighters (A.F.L.), have worked for the improvement and protection of public employee retirement systems.

Through these groups the views of public employees pertaining to this situation can be summarized as follows:

1. The social security law should be amended as it applies to local and state employees
2. Any amendment should continue the exclusion of policemen and firemen
3. The amendment should provide in detail the conditions under which a referendum of the public employees in each retirement system must be conducted by state and local officials
4. Any type of plan for coordinating retirement with social security should be placed before the public employees for vote and, if approved by two-thirds of the active members, the Governor should certify that the combined plan provides benefits equal to or better than those of the existing retirement system
5. The vested rights in the retirement plan, both of the retired employee and those in active service, should be guaranteed by the state before the state was eligible for social security
6. The amended law should specify that any state reducing the retirement benefits in later years would no longer be eligible for social security^a

In brief, the public employee groups favored an amendment to the social security law which would set up in detail the conditions under which the states could be eligible for extending social security coverage to public employees now members of state and local retirement systems.

During the second session of the 83rd Congress changes in the social security law were enacted relating to the extension of coverage to public employees. These changes followed in part the recommendations of the Joint Committee of Public Employee Organizations.

The major changes affecting public employees are as follows:

1. The "backdoor" such as was used by Virginia and Mississippi to place public employees under social security was closed to all existing state and local retirement systems.

2. Social security extension to employees under existing local or state retirement systems was denied unless a referendum of those affected was held following a ninety-day notice and in which at least a majority of the eligible voters voted for coverage under social security. The number of referendums was limited to no more than one each year.
3. When a retirement system includes employees of more than one political subdivision (or state employees and local employees) coverage *may* be effected by separate referendums for each subdivision or on a state-wide basis. If a retirement system includes employees of institutions of higher learning (including junior colleges and teachers colleges) such employees *may* vote separately or in the same referendum with the other members of the retirement system. These matters are left to state determination.
4. Firemen and policemen continue to be totally excluded as provided for in the 1950 law.
5. There was also included a statement of policy that it is the intent of Congress in permitting the coverage of state and local retirement systems by social security that the retirement rights of these individuals be not impaired or reduced.

While these safeguards were placed in the law as the result of the efforts of public employees to protect the rights and equities of those in existing systems, it was not the intent to place hurdles or hindrances in the way of those who needed or desired social security coverage.

The current law falls short of the safeguards indicated as adequate by public employees since it failed to require an assurance that the members of state or local retirement systems know what they are voting on in the referendum; since only a majority of the eligible voters must vote in favor of coverage instead of two-thirds of those eligible to vote; and since there was no implementation of the "statement of policy" by the inclusion of positive mandates.

If the backward step of substituting social security for state or local retirement plans is to be prevented, it must be done at the state and local level. The first step in the right direction is to improve inadequate retirement systems to insure that they compete favorably with the benefits of social security.

Full knowledge of the current Social Security Act and of the provisions of their own state or local retirement plan is an obligation of

each member of the profession. Many times comparison of these plans are unfavorable because they are made without full information.

GETTING READY TO RETIRE

Since , the population of the United States has doubled, but the number of persons 45 to 64 years has tripled, while the number 65 years and older has quadrupled.

Of the 13 million persons 65 years and over living in their own households, almost one-fifth had a wife, husband, or some other relative living with them. A little over half a million were roomers or boarders in families not related to them, and more than 700,000 were living in institutions, hotels, or large rooming houses.

Government estimates of what it cost an elderly couple to maintain a "modest but adequate" level of living in an urban area in October, ranged from \$1,602 a year in New Orleans to \$1,908 in Milwaukee.

In forty-three percent of the families headed by a person 65 years of age or older had a cash income of less than \$1,500; 30 percent had under \$1,000; and 15 percent less than \$500.

The proportion of men 65 years and over in the labor force declined from 68 percent in 1890 to 41 percent . Few changes have taken place, on the other hand, in the relative number of men 45 to 64 years in the labor force, while the labor participation rates of older women have gone up.

Coupled with a parallel increase in longevity, the drop in work opportunities for older workers has made for a longer span of years in retirement.

As one examines the facts on aging and as one hears the many stories about people who retire and soon afterwards begin to ail and fret, and die much too soon, he cannot help wonder about what can be done. Many would say there is nothing to do; they have simply lost their interest in living. Others feel that the period of retirement can be as meaningful a part of life as any other if sound and imaginative planning is done. We know that people cannot change work habits of a lifetime overnight. The teacher in front of the classroom who looks forward to the day when he can sleep late in the morning is going to find it harder than he thinks to turn off the mental alarm clock that has regulated his life for so many years. The pleasures of retirement begin to fade if he finds himself asking "What can I do today?" A real job we must all face, and one that the personnel administrators must give immediate and special attention to, is to help their employees be prepared to enjoy retirement when it comes.

Many times during a lifetime we are faced with the problem of adjustment to change. Retirement is another such period. Change in status, in income, in living arrangements, in physical capacity are changes that cannot be avoided, but they can be met. Retirement represents a marked change in the way of life. It is primarily the responsibility of the employee to learn how to spend the retirement years. There is some evidence that those who anticipate and prepare for it make better adjustments. With such practices as compulsory retirement or termination of services of his employees, a greater responsibility falls upon the administrator than before.

Some establishments in industry and some communities are experimenting with individual and group counseling and formal courses covering the range of later-life situations that are likely to represent problem areas. Relatively little is known yet about effective content and methods of presentation. The authors believe that many of the efforts talk down to the retiree, probably as a result of the lack of knowledge of older persons and factors in their adjustment.

A specific question that may be raised is whether these programs or services should be offered by the school system or by the community. Some feel that it is the responsibility of the community, since after leaving the service of the school district they find their activities in the

community. Hence it would seem desirable to get them into community-oriented programs. Another reason might be that most systems are too small to offer preparatory services. Thus the community will be involved in any event. On the other hand, programs in some industrial and commercial firms appear to indicate that programs sponsored by the employer have enjoyed a high degree of success.

There currently seems to be a slackening of interest by some firms which were enthusiastically pursuing plans for the establishment of a program of pre-retirement counseling. This change in attitude is probably due to (1) the need for all available manpower, (2) the uncertainty of where to begin, and the realization that such programs cannot be hastily established, if they are to be sound, and (3) doubt as to the extent of the firm's responsibility in this new field of personnel administration.

Where the problem has been given serious consideration the need is seen for counseling in three areas: financial, physical, and emotional. In almost every instance questions arise such as: What should be the detailed content of such a program? How long should it take? Will the employees accept it? Will they think we are meddling in private matters? In spite of these questions and other doubts, there is a responsibility toward helping an employee adjust to retirement. We do not want the employee, after leaving his job and fellow workers, to feel that "all out-of-doors looked darkly in at him."

Employees need to be encouraged and assisted in considering the several major problem areas related to retirement long before the date of actual retirement. Early planning for the retired years is necessary. "When will I retire? What will I do? To earn money? To keep alert? Is my job the only important thing in my life? How may I make use of my hobbies? Now that I have more free time, how may I serve my community? Where will I live? What of my health?" These as well as other questions will all have to be answered. Each employee should check "My Plans" against a list of common human needs—activity, the feeling of importance, of belonging, of achievement, of usefulness, of being needed, of companionship, the desire for being creative.

Many employees fail to plan for retirement because to them retirement means the beginning of "old age." They dare not even think of

it because of fear. Even though today's life expectancy after age 65 is about 15 years, many look upon this period as nothing more than a self deathwatch.

Each person differs from every other. Easy steps to happiness in retirement are not possible. Each employee must make his own way by facing up to the problems ahead. A satisfactory period of life can be achieved if the following needs are met:

1. A regular income or other financial resources sufficient to provide independence and a sense of security
2. An occupation, avocation, or absorbing hobby compatible with physical capacity
3. A pleasant place to live which will not put a strain on health, pocket-book, or emotions
4. A feeling of being useful through personal or community service
5. The conservation of health
6. A positive attitude toward self, others, and the world

The person who is caught in retirement without adequate preparation may find himself traveling a rough road. The personnel administrator has a responsibility to see to it that this does not happen.

As the employer, the employee as an individual, and the employees through their respective organizations work together, the problem of getting ready for retirement, as well as almost all other problems of personnel, can be solved. It is a joint responsibility.

PROVISION FOR LEAVES OF ABSENCE

Presumably, when an employee accepts a position he agrees to be on the job each day. Yet there are many reasons why it is justifiable, or even imperative, for him to be absent occasionally from his regular duties. Within certain limits, such absences are advantageous to the school system as well as to the employee. One who insists on being at work when ill is not likely to do justice to the work and may spread contagious disease among students and fellow workers, or may seriously impair his own health and safety. One who visits other school systems or attends important educational or professional meetings usually returns with ideas for improving his own work, and with en-

1. Sick leave with full salary for not more than a specified number of days per year. These days may or may not be cumulative
2. Sick leave with part salary. This may be full salary less the cost of a substitute, half pay or some other proportion, for not more than a specified number of days per year. These days may or may not be cumulative
3. Sick leave with full salary for a certain period plus added days at part salary for not more than a specified number of days per year. These days may or may not be cumulative
4. Sick leave as described in 1, 2, or 3 with the provision that the number of days of leave vary in terms of length of service
5. Sick leave at full or part salary for an indefinite number of days depending largely on the merits of the individual case

In developing policies pertaining to brief absences due to illness, the following general principles may be helpful:

1. Constructive measures should be taken to keep at a minimum the amount of absence due to ill health. Such measures as determining physical fitness at the time of employment and at periodic intervals during employment and the maintenance of healthful working conditions in the schools
2. The conditions under which leaves of absence with pay may be granted should be clearly and definitely stated
3. The compensation of absent employees and the number of days during which such remuneration may be received should be determined by the lengths of absences among employees for various reasons in the local school system, the financial ability of the system, and the current practice in other communities
4. Some financial protection should be provided against long attacks of illness when the employee's economic security is most endangered by loss of income
5. The plan for allowing leaves of absence should be reasonably safeguarded against abuse
6. The education of children during the absence of regular employees, especially teachers, should be safeguarded by providing trained, capable, and well-paid substitutes

EXTENDED LEAVES OF ABSENCE

Extended leaves of absence without pay occasionally are granted to meet such personal needs as physical recuperation, civilian nonteach-

ing employment, or family crises. Requests for such leaves are considered in fairness to the employee and to the students affected. During the war period, military leaves were universal (with tenure and retirement rights fully protected); many leaves were granted for war-related assignments and to wives of military personnel.

Provisions for extended leaves of absence for professional improvement are found in about 5 out of 6 cities, and for travel in a little less than half. The proportion of the school systems granting extended leaves for study and travel has decreased some in the past ten years, probably due in part to the teacher shortage which has developed during this time. Lacking a sufficient number of competent teachers and facing growing enrollments, many systems may be forced to withdraw or temporarily suspend regulations which would permit a classroom teacher to be absent for an entire semester or school year for the purpose of professional improvement.

Professional improvement through leaves granted for *exchange* teaching, both in foreign countries and in the United States, has become reasonably common and will probably not be curtailed, for, as the name implies, teachers are exchanged—hence no actual reduction in staff occurs.

Sabbatical Leaves. Sabbatical leaves are arrangements to encourage teachers who have taught a number of years in a school system to spend a half year or a year in study, travel, research, cultural stimulation, or in some cases health improvement, rest, or recreation. The major purpose of a sabbatical leave is to provide opportunity for professional improvement, not to reward the teacher for previous services. The most common practice in granting pay during sabbatical leave is to give full pay less the cost of a substitute. Table 25 summarizes the practice in regard to salary arrangements for teachers availing themselves of extended leaves for professional improvement.⁹

The fact that there has been little or no change since 1940–1941 in salary payments allowed during extended leave for professional study is probably associated with the decline in the proportion of cities allowing extended leaves, which in turn is probably affected by the manpower shortages. In many systems where some salary is allowed on

sabbatical leaves, the refunding of at least a part of the money received while on such leave is required if the teacher does not give a specified number of years of service in the granting system subsequent to the time the sabbatical leave was taken.

Maternity Leave. As the employment of married women teachers increases, the need arises for granting leaves of absence for maternity. Currently, half of the cities have policies granting leaves of absence for maternity. In cities of 30,000 or larger, the percentage granting

TABLE 25. Salary Arrangements for Teachers on Leaves for Professional Improvement

Proportion of Salary	(331 Cities) Percent	(372 Cities) Percent
No salary	70%	62
Full salary	—	—
Half salary	8	10
Full salary less pay of substitute	18	20
Other fraction	5	5

maternity leaves ranges from 60 to 94 percent. Ordinarily, such leave is granted without pay and must extend for a year or more.

Summary. There is no conclusive evidence on the effect of any leave practice upon the effectiveness of the teachers concerned. Most recommendations and practices are based on logic. Teacher testimony is that they feel more effective after leaves of absence for professional improvement; supervisors make the same judgments. We do not know how much desirable student learning is furthered or obstructed by variations in practices relating to absences due to illness, absences for professional growth, and those for personal nonprofessional interests. Until more information is available, the practices will be determined by the "common sense" of school officials as influenced by the suggestions of teachers.

SUBSTITUTE SERVICE

If a substitute must be employed for a teacher who is ill or unexpectedly absent due to some other personal emergency, then unexpected expense occurs. The budgeting of sick-leave funds can be a

difficult problem. Some would argue against such a practice, charging that it results in unnecessary absence and that when one has contracted to deliver personal service he should furnish it. On the other hand, it might be stated in favor of such a practice that many times the illness is contracted in school or came about as a result of the work itself; that such practice will result in all teachers having a better attitude toward their work than if they are worrying about actual or feared loss of income due to illness; that teachers who should stay at home because of illness will not teach and spread disease among the children in order to avoid deductions from their salary; and that the school district is better able to stand the loss than the individual teacher.

One cannot overlook the responsibility to safeguard the education of children during the absence of regular teachers. This necessitates a consideration of the problems and practices concerning the employment of substitute teachers and for these reasons the authors have included at this point some information pertaining to substitute service.

A majority of city school systems employ all substitutes on a day-to-day wage basis. Of the cities 30,000 or over in population, more than half employed some substitutes on a full-time basis on the per diem plan. (See Table 26.)

The qualifications of a substitute teacher are of prime importance. By far, the greatest single source of supply is made up of teachers who are unable to meet certification qualifications for regular appointment. Because this group is the major source of supply for substitute teachers, it is necessary that special in-service programs be developed. The substitute teacher is an important part of the personnel, and as such he should be given assistance and training so that the instructional program will continue at top level efficiency.

The next largest group is that of qualified teachers, serving as substitutes only until a vacancy occurs. Special attention should be given to that sizable group consisting of married women, formerly employed, but currently unavailable for appointment because of marriage; or not previously employed but qualified for regular service and ruled out because they were married. This group furnishes 1 out of 6 of the

substitutes. There seems little logic to justify a rule that excludes married women from regular teaching service, but admits them as substitute teachers. It is hoped that an early abandonment of rules against the employment of married women as teachers will soon end these inconsistent practices.

With a few exceptions, the day-to-day substitute is paid a flat daily amount for the days worked. More than half of the long-term substitutes are paid according to the regular salary schedules, while another fifth are held at the minimum of the schedule. Eleven percent of the substitutes must bargain individually.

The welfare of pupils demands that the classes of absent teachers be taught by the best substitutes that can be employed. The provision of competent substitutes should be as thoughtfully administered as the selection of regular teachers.

THE HEALTH OF SCHOOL PERSONNEL

All school personnel, teachers, administrators, operating and maintenance employees, clerical employees, and food handlers need sound physical health and emotional balance in order to make their maximum contribution to the growth of boys and girls. While there is little disagreement with this position, little has been done to provide adequate health services for school employees. Much attention has been given to programs for health instruction and to safety and healthful conditions in school buildings, while only superficial consideration has been given to the health of the school employee with whom children come in daily contact.

In order to get the greatest benefit from their school experiences, boys and girls need healthy school employees. The first step to assure this is by careful screening at the time of original employment. This may involve inspection of college attendance and health records and careful observation of the general appearance of the individual. A thorough health examination by competent medical advisers to rule out those who are physically or mentally unfit for school employment should be made. The staff physician or medical adviser should certify to the superintendent that the candidate is in good health before recommending employment. While it is more difficult to appraise

mental than physical health, every effort should be made to be sure that the prospective employee is mentally sound.

MAINTENANCE OF GOOD PERSONAL HEALTH

The personnel administrator through a health service department should encourage the personnel to give prompt attention to deviations from the normal no matter how slight or trivial. Some of the signs that indicate that all is not well are: persistent or excessive fatigue; persistent or recurring generalized aching, persistent or recurring local pain; dizziness; shortage of breath; hoarseness or coughing; persistent or apparently causeless digestive disturbances; persistent eliminative disturbances or irregularities; abnormal bleeding (in women); any bleeding (in men); urinary disturbances; weakness or lack of muscle coordination; and any changes in sense of touch, smell, taste, vision or hearing.

Periodic medical examinations are desirable in order to protect children and employees themselves from the effects of unsuspected illnesses. Most people do not give much heed to small warnings and some types of disease become firmly established before an individual is aware of his affliction. If sickness is discovered early enough, remedial measures oftentimes extend the occupational usefulness many years. In spite of the fact that periodic health examinations are a wise precaution, most people do not arrange for them voluntarily. For the protection of pupils it may be necessary to require by law or local regulation such an examination at periodic intervals.

In launching a system of physical examinations, especially one calling for periodic reexamination after employment, representatives of the groups affected should participate in the planning and complete information about the plan should be given to all concerned. The development of a health program for employees is best done when it is a cooperative enterprise involving the staff and the administration. It is not uncommon after the inauguration of such programs for several individuals to express appreciation for the discovery of illness early enough for correction and consequent extension of school employment, which in many cases enabled them to reach a satisfactory retirement age.

EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS AFFECTING MENTAL HEALTH

Considerable progress has been made in the teaching profession in reducing the element of insecurity. The protection of definite tenure laws is a source of comfort to some who are inclined to worry about retaining their positions. It is sound administrative practice, with or without tenure legislation, to develop a sense of employment security among school employees. Such a policy produces lower turnover and a happier working atmosphere.

Democratic school administrative practices give the staff a feeling of importance and satisfaction that helps build contented personnel. Democratic operation improves the quality of administrative policies and leads to better understanding and acceptance of decisions. Strong and desirable mental attitudes on the part of the staff can be developed if the members of the staff are given a voice in the formulation of policy, the planning of courses, the selection of books, and the development of the public relations program. Pleasant and wholesome relationships among staff members and administrators promote a strong sense of security.

Adequate salaries, health insurance plans, workmen's compensation, retirement plans, 12-month pay plans, credit unions, all of which have been discussed elsewhere in this chapter or in Chapter 10 have a direct bearing on the mental health of the employee.

Although leaves of absence, especially sick leave and extended leaves due to illness, have been presented earlier in this section of the text, the authors believe that mention should be made here of leaves for personal reasons. The general morale of employees is lifted when an employee can occasionally be absent without loss in pay for some unusual event. A business demand, an obligation as an officer of an organization, a wedding in the family, or other numerous instances require an employee once in a while to be absent from his work. When consideration is given to those special demands to employees with records of faithfulness to their work, it is deeply appreciated. The small cost of a substitute is more than justified as a means of developing happy and loyal personnel.

**OTHER CONDITIONS AFFECTING THE HEALTH OF THE
EMPLOYEE**

Teaching at best is difficult work. Working with children constantly is wearing. The health of the school staff can be promoted by building improvements including sound-treated rooms, good ventilation, sufficient lighting, adequate heating, attractive surroundings, sanitary lavatory facilities, comfortable rest rooms, and desirable lunchroom equipment.

Teacher load, overcrowded classrooms, conflicting personalities, jealousies, danger of expressing honest opinion about the schools, inadequate supplies and equipment, lack of recognition of work well done, criticism by superiors, especially when done in front of pupils, all have implications pertaining to the health of the school employee.

Protection of teachers from excessive demands to collect money and from contests and drives sponsored by well-meaning civic groups helps to keep staff members healthy. An adequate, well-considered policy, officially approved by the board of education, can serve as a convenient and safe guide by the administrator when approached by pressure groups who would use the schools to further their own selfish ends. Many activities sponsored by outside agencies have educational value. A wise statement of policy adhered to will limit the work of the school to the justifiable and reasonable cooperative enterprises. All school employees deserve equal consideration in the matter of health protection. Harmony of the entire organization controls the successful operation of the school program. Practices that promote the good health of the entire personnel are sound investments in good education.

INSURANCE PROTECTION

Although for many years some school employees have had better security of position and "welfare benefits" than have employees in industry, today more and more companies are expected to provide such benefits as cash while workers are out ill, money for hospital and doctor bills, funds for old age retirement, and death benefits to employees' families. Many companies have had some such policy for

years, but the demands are sharper now. Every company, small or large, must be in a position to set sound policy on welfare benefits today. This trend also has implications for those responsible for personnel administration in education.

In addition to the usual areas of tenure, retirement, and sick leave, attention is being directed to protections offered through group insurance plans. It is not the authors' intention to discuss the details of such plans but to direct consideration of possibilities to the personnel administrator for improvement of the welfare program for employees.

Through group insurance programs, protection against seven vital emergencies which affect the security and peace of mind of employees and their families is available: loss of life, loss of income due to sickness, loss of income due to accident, loss of sight or limb due to accident, cost of medical care, cost of hospital confinement, and cost of surgical care. Insurance against these emergencies protects employees' wages by providing funds to help meet the unexpected expenses at a cost substantially lower than individual insurance.

LIFE INSURANCE

According to mortality statistics, out of every one hundred employees the following numbers can be expected to die during the next ten years:

<i>Age</i>	<i>No. of Employees</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>No. of Employees</i>
25	4	45	11
30	5	50	16
35	6	55	23
40	8	60	34

Death of the wage earner leaves a family worried about funeral expenses, living costs, children's education, and future security. Yet 15 percent of all wage earners either cannot buy insurance at all or can only buy it at increased rates; 35 percent have no life insurance and of those who own individual policies nearly one half have less than \$1000 and about one quarter have less than \$500.

Group life insurance gives a sense of security. Many times, it is the only insurance the employee has. When an employee dies, cash bene-

fits are payable to his survivors when it is most needed. Group life insurance is good business. Such programs increase employee security and make the system known as a good place to work. It is an inexpensive way of maintaining good employee relations on an organized basis.

Accidental death and dismemberment protection can also be included. Accidents rank fourth among the causes of death. This protection doubles the payment to the employee's beneficiary when death is due to accidental means, and in addition pays benefits for loss of limb or eyesight.

ACCIDENT AND SICKNESS INSURANCE

There are 3 out of 10 employees who lose valuable working days each year because of disability. Almost 50 percent of those disabled will be away from work more than one week—the average length of such disability is eight weeks.

When an employee cannot work because of illness or nonoccupational accident, his income stops at the very time that his expenses climb. He is faced with loss of income while his living expenses continue and are often increased by medical charges.

A program of this type can be designed to supplement the sick-leave program of the district. This insurance is designed to cover only nonoccupational sickness and accident in order not to duplicate Workmen's Compensation benefits.

HOSPITAL, SURGICAL, AND MEDICAL EXPENSE INSURANCE

Each year, 1 person out of 10 is confined in a hospital. Many persons who should have hospital care postpone it because of the expense. Family groups are particularly vulnerable to financial emergency caused by hospital confinement. This financial emergency is a heavy burden to the wage earner. In many instances, it can be met only by sacrifice or by going into debt.

About 80 percent of all persons confined in a hospital have surgical operations. In every family, each additional dependent increases the probability of an operation being required at any time. Some surgical operations can be, and often are, postponed because of expenses. This

delays treatment so important to vigorous good health. For many operations result from accidents or sudden acute disability, and must be performed without delay. Employees can not foresee these emergencies and need help in meeting the unexpected expenses.

The seriousness and length of accident and sickness disabilities, and their cost, vary greatly. It is practically impossible to budget successfully for doctor's bills for prolonged disability. Fixed household and living costs continue during disability. Doctor's bills are an additional income-draining burden that employees are often reluctant to add to their expenses. Employees may obtain satisfactory doctor's care when they are assured of assistance in the paying of the bills.

Employees want to be protected against the often disastrous effect of hospital, surgical, and medical expenses for themselves and their dependents. This is evidenced by the fact that in some states the professional education associations have in operation self-insurance plans to meet these emergencies.

Insurance of this kind tends to eliminate worry on the part of the employee. It improves employer-employee relationship and provides an organized low-cost means of meeting on a prepayment basis any such responsibility the board of education may feel toward employees and their families. It gives a competitive advantage in the employment market.

Many major commercial insurance companies are now providing good protection in this area. Probably the best national program available is through the Blue Cross and Blue Shield plans. Each local or regional group, while independent and self-governing, is a part of a gigantic effort to improve national health. The plans are required to conform to service and nonprofit principles laid down by the Blue Cross Commission, a central body elected from the Plans at large and recognized by the American Hospital Association. The Blue Shield plans are governed by a similar central organization called the Associated Medical Care Plans.

PROFESSIONAL LIABILITY INSURANCE

Governmental immunity lies in the common-law tradition which began in the Middle Ages in England, which said that the king can

do no wrong. Therefore, unless the state consents, it cannot be sued for an alleged wrong. Since school districts are subdivisions of the state, this same immunity applies.

California and Washington statutes refer to the board's liability for negligence of its agents and employees. Connecticut, New Jersey, and New York have authorized school boards to pay out of school funds any judgments obtained by injured persons against their instructional and supervisory employees. Without such legislation, use of school funds for this purpose would be illegal. Only in New York has the principle that the employer is responsible legally for the harm caused by the negligence of his employees been applied in public employment.¹⁰

Although there is some indication of a trend toward the assumption of liability by boards of education, until it becomes commonplace it is a wise employee who protects himself by carrying professional liability insurance. This coverage is closely related to the comprehensive personal liability protection offered to meet the unpredictable hazards of high-speed, high-risk, high-cost, and high-value modern living, but at substantially lower cost.

Professional employees are exposed to lawsuits because they provide services and advice of the most personal nature. A parent can make costly legal claims at any time, alleging injury due to professional actions. To defend any lawsuit is expensive; to lose may be even more costly. When, or if, one will be sued cannot be foretold but the employee can be protected from financial loss by means of professional liability insurance.

The law imposes responsibility for injuring the person or property of another, whether by act or omission. Liability is determined in each case by the facts and circumstances. A policy of this type insures against loss by reason of claims or suits for damages resulting from professional services rendered or which should have been rendered by the employee or by any person for the acts of whom he was responsible.

The employee is protected if sued, even if the suit is groundless.

He is provided with legal defense; the claim is settled or the suit is defended. If judgment is awarded against the employee, the judgment is paid up to the policy limit, and in addition, all cost for defense, irrespective of policy limits, are paid. If property of the employee should be attached to satisfy judgments and costs assessed against him, the policy provides for furnishing of bonds up to the applicable limit of liability for appeals or the release of attachments or garnishments. If uninsured, one might have to assume cost of court proceedings, lawyers' fees, and judgments. One might have to pledge as security, his real estate, chattels, and other property.

This area of liability might be described as "a legal no-man's land." The situation in each state is different. Many policies purporting to cover all types of liability are written. Because of these facts, the authors urge that the situation in each state be fully understood and that careful legal examination of insurance policies be made by every person concerned.

While insurance plans discussed above are not in extensive use today, they are not uncommon. A number of cities have made such plans available through the board of education, and probably an equal number have made protection available through local and state education associations. "Fringe benefits" such as these are not to be confused with adequate salary schedules. Nevertheless it must be kept in mind that with increased school costs and financial limitations, the same degree of employee good will, job satisfaction, and security available through these plans could not be accomplished by distributing a like amount of money as small, direct wage increases.

CREDIT UNIONS FOR SCHOOL EMPLOYEES

The general low level of teachers' salaries is an old story. For many years, teachers have been expected to work out a happy adjustment between high thinking and low income. While such salary schedules and rates of pay are improving steadily, it is doubtful that teachers will ever be more than a moderate-income group. Studies of low- and middle-income groups always show that many persons are, from time to time, confronted with financial crises. Illness, operations, and other emergencies force many to borrow enough to carry them through short

periods of need. This situation illustrates one of the frequent types of problems where the credit union may serve.

Credit unions are associations of people, who, already united by some common bond, have organized under provincial, state, or federal law so that collectively and by coöperative endeavor they may attain the following purposes:

1. To teach and encourage the habit of thrift by providing a safe and convenient medium that will attract members to save for a goal and provide a fair return on these savings
2. To help members become better guided as to the proper handling of their own finances and to encourage them constantly to live within their means
3. To establish credit and lend money to members for provident and productive purposes at a reasonable rate of interest

Many times, an employee finds himself faced with an emergency in his family which requires the immediate expenditure of money. He may also have to buy something for which he does not have the cash, and is forced to buy on a long-range installment contract. In this process, he usually pays more than the cash price. The problem of financing summer-school work is often a serious one. These situations and others can be met conveniently and economically by a credit union loan. The interest paid on these loans goes to his fellow workers, thereby raising the earnings of the group.

A major job of the credit union is to help its members convert income into the maximum of goods and services. If one pays too much for the cost of credit through interest charges or added prices on installment purchases, he, in effect, cuts his real wages. The credit union exists to help its members realize that it is significant to create for themselves and their families the highest standard of living consistent with their income. It also aids members in the management of their money through friendly counsel of their fellow employees.

WHY SCHOOL EMPLOYEES NEED CREDIT UNION FACILITIES

The authors have suggested that school employees need credit unions because the majority of them receive relatively low salaries.

All do not receive low salaries. Even these individuals, in case of emergency, may require small loans to carry them through several months. The credit union provides this service with the best possible understanding and at a reasonable cost.

Another reason for credit unions is to help employees, especially teachers, to meet the problems of self-improvement. Every professional group must keep abreast of technical developments in the field. Teachers must not only do this but must also maintain a steadily rising cultural level. To contribute to the social and economic progress of the nation, one should grow steadily in understanding of the problems of American democracy. Obviously, teachers must subscribe to magazines, purchase books, attend summer school, travel, participate in conferences and conventions, and belong to professional and civic groups. These cost money. The cost may need to be spread over periods of time when often no salary checks are being received. With the aid of credit union savings and loans, these self-improvement activities can be made possible with a minimum of hardship.

Not only must professional status be maintained but an employee should also enjoy a reasonable proportion of the comforts of life. Purchase of needed furniture, clothing, automobiles, and the purchase and repair of their homes are made possible through credit unions.

An undeclared, nonfinancial dividend comes from the participation in credit unions. Employees gain increased ability to manage their income, to appreciate their fellow employees, to understand economic problems, and to work together democratically. These abilities are especially needed in teaching since they support some of the major purposes of education. By learning to do "through doing" teachers are better equipped to instruct their pupils than they could possibly be solely on the basis of book learning.

ADMINISTRATOR COÖPERATION NECESSARY

A credit union serving employee groups is strictly an employees' organization and the employer takes no active part in its administration. However, the success of such a credit union depends upon sensible harmony between the school board and school administration and the employee group. By coöperating in little matters, by giving a word

of encouragement now and then, and by becoming active members themselves, administrative officials can cause the credit union to become an invaluable asset. On the other hand, management which shows little or no interest in the credit union or denies simple operational favors or takes other seemingly innocent actions, can so discourage the group as to cause its credit union to become a direct liability. An administration, appreciating the tremendous amount of good that a credit union can do for employees, should be very ready to help. This should include suitable space for the credit union to operate; light, heat, and telephone service; and should always include frequent assurance that the board of education is behind the credit union and that administrative officials can always be counted upon for needed advice and reasonable assistance.

As an effective means of stimulating regular savings, the use of payroll deductions should be made possible. Payroll deductions for credit union payments also streamline operations and permit the saving of a greater number of members.

Employees given the opportunity to organize and operate a credit union through the coöperation of boards of education and school administrators should recognize such assistance and show their appreciation by gratefully acknowledging all considerations. Management's support is, of course, a part of its personnel program and is justified by the contribution the credit union makes to increased employee morale, and the resulting increased production. The personnel office and the credit union can be mutually helpful in assisting employees to help themselves and in making the credit union generally effective as an employee service organization.



CHAPTER 12

Appraisal and Recognition of Teaching Effectiveness

Historically, the early schools in our country were visited by town officials in order to make sure that the wishes of the community were being carried out. This was particularly true in regard to the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic. The criteria used in making such evaluations of performance were centered around smoothness of recitation and discipline of pupils during the time of visitation. Since these early days there has gradually developed a recognition that the appraisal of the work of the teacher should be a responsibility of the professionally prepared administrator or supervisor, and that the objective is more effective instruction. The acceptance of this responsibility by those charged with the administration and supervision of the schools brings the subject of the chapter within the scope of personnel administration. A previous chapter has established this phase of administrative and supervisory responsibility as part of the work of those functioning in this area.

PURPOSES OF APPRAISING TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

The *administrative* aspects of this problem are those having to do with selection, promotion, transfer, or dismissal of the educational staff, the adjustment of salaries, the appraisal of teaching as a part of the general operation of the school system, and similar purposes that pertain to the management and direction of the school system.

The *supervisory* aspects of appraising or recognizing teaching efficiency are concerned especially with the improvement of teaching or with the evaluation of the supervisory program itself. This aspect of the general problem under discussion is, then, essentially one involved with the subject matter of Chapter 9 on the Orientation and Improvement of Personnel. To prevent duplication, therefore, the authors will limit the discussion in this chapter to those aspects of the problem that are most closely related to the management and direction of the school system.

In Chapter 3 the authors stressed the difficulty of separating the administrative, or *line*, function from the supervisory, or *staff*, function. This problem again presents itself as the separation suggested in the previous paragraph is attempted.

PUBLIC ASPECTS OF THE PROBLEM

Had it not already been accepted as a responsibility of administration to deal with the problem of appraising and recognizing teacher efficiency, the public demands faced by school administrators today would have required them to do so. As the problem of school support has become a public concern, due to an increased school population, teacher shortages, and inflationary conditions, public demands for evaluation of teacher effectiveness have been increasing. These demands have been reflected in legislation, such as in the State of New York on merit rating, and in expressions of public bodies, such as survey commissions and citizens' committees. Regulations of boards of education have increasingly attempted to deal with the problem during the past few years.

COMPLEXITY OF PROBLEM

Not only are we dealing with an issue, then, that school authorities recognize as part of their responsibility, but also with one in which

the public demands for action frequently complicate the issue. Hastily written legislation by those not thoroughly familiar with the total problem, or board action in which the application of business and industrial appraisal techniques are proposed as a solution of the problem, have in numerous instances actually retarded the development of constructively conceived, professionally sound plans to which the profession and public might both subscribe.

Part of the difficulty in meeting the issue grows out of reluctance of administrators in the public schools to accept their responsibility because of their fear of criticism from their employees. It also grows out of the sometimes unreasoning opposition of organized bodies of professional personnel to face realistically the fact that they have a responsibility to help solve this especially difficult professional problem. Increasingly, the authors believe, farseeing professional leaders in both the administrative and teacher groups are appreciating what amounts to a joint professional responsibility and are setting about to find ways of dealing with the problem. Cooperation with laymen and being willing to look at methods employed in other fields are approaches to the problem.

The controversy may be illustrated by a quotation from a recent report issued in February, 'by the Utah Public School Survey Commission:

This Commission recommends that the Legislative Council should appoint a lay-professional committee to complete a comprehensive study of the companion problems of teacher appraisal and salary structure, directed to the end of correlating professional merit with financial compensation for Utah Public School personnel.

All Utah school districts presently are using salary schedules which provide, as a rule, for automatic yearly increases from an established minimum until the established maximum is reached. Such a salary policy, in the opinion of the Commission, offers little inducement to attract and hold a sufficient number of outstanding teachers. It is the considered judgment of the Commission that a group of citizens, working with teachers and administrators, can develop a practical and equitable method of teacher appraisal and correlated salary schedules based upon merit, which would not only improve the quality of teaching in Utah's schools, but would also

assist in achieving increased public recognition of and respect for the profession.¹

BACKGROUND OF TEACHER APPRAISAL

Appraisal of teaching has been going on as long as there has been teaching. Undoubtedly, those who were being taught must have evaluated their teachers as they listened to what was said in the temples, in the tepees, along the trails, and on the streets and highways. Today, we still cite the teaching of such masters as Jesus, Socrates, and Aristotle. Evaluation of teaching continued on an informal basis even after education became somewhat formalized, as we know it today. As teaching began to assume the status of a profession and educational methods and techniques were developed, evaluation of the teacher's work developed along more organized and professional lines.

Credit for placing the problem of teaching efficiency in the field of research and objective measure, rather than leaving it in the field of opinion, is given to J. L. Merriam. Merriam's study, *Normal School Education and Efficiency in Teaching*,² published in 1905, attempted to show the relationship between scholarship and teaching ability. In 1910, at a meeting of city superintendents in Washington, D.C., Edward C. Elliott presented a report entitled *A Tentative Scheme for the Measurement of Teaching Efficiency*. The inclusion of this subject at the convention indicates the early interest of administrators in the problem. Elliott was attempting to determine whether "quantitative standards" could be applied to the measurement of teaching efficiency.

Other early studies sought to determine why teachers fail. This approach was probably due to the lack of professional standards, extremely low salaries, and poor teaching-training programs. Study of teacher weaknesses is probably better applicable when used to determine the reason for unsuccessful teaching than when used as a basis for rating. *The 14th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of*

*Education*³ will be of interest to those who are concerned about research on teacher evaluation prior to 1915.

Since 1920, interest in teacher appraisal has increased markedly. Attempts have been made to isolate the significant and measurable qualities of effective teaching, and methods of measuring these qualities have been developed. Characteristic differences of good and poor teachers have received wide recognition. One of the best known studies in the field of evaluation is the Commonwealth Teacher Training Study, reported by Charters and Waples . This study attempted to provide such a comprehensive description of the duties and traits of teachers that a basis might be secured *for determining what teachers should be taught*.

A study attempting to determine whether there are significant differences in permanent outcomes with respect to pupils as a result of earlier teaching by specific teachers was reported by Kappa Delta Pi

In attempts were made at Ohio State University to identify the classroom activities revealing teacher competence. This resulted in the development of the "Ohio Teaching Record."⁶ The "Record" is definitely diagnostic in its form and function. It makes no provision for final judgment of teaching ability. The assumption is made that the Record will guide the collection and analysis of a large body of significant evidence which the teacher and supervisor may, together, evaluate in the light of their own situation and judgment. This is appraisal in its most constructive form. It has had significant effect in guiding thinking away from measurement in its narrow sense and toward evaluation as intimately associated with learning and growth.

The cooperative approach to teacher evaluation, involving active

participation of both teacher and supervisor, received considerable stimulus as a result of the report of the American Council in prepared by Troyer and Pace.⁷ Evaluation is most effective in stimulating teacher growth when it is focused on problems about which teachers are personally concerned—their relationships with pupils, their effectiveness in the classroom, their own programs, and their part in school and community life.

Currently the American Educational Research Association has formed a Committee on the Criteria of Teacher Effectiveness.

The first report⁸ came after two years of study and a consideration of existing research. A study of the report reveals the difficulty of working and reaching an agreement in this field. The struggle of the committee even to establish the meaning of the terminology of its name suggests the difficulty of research in the area. If the authors have interpreted the committee report correctly, it is concerned with the immediate and far-reaching effects of teaching as it applies to (a) effects on pupils, (b) effects on school operation, and (c) effects on school-community relationships.

It would appear, therefore, that assuming the committee thinking to be sound—and it does have the background of research findings to date—that types of teaching appraisal might very well limit themselves to the three areas defined by the committee. Essentially, the committee interests coincide with the earlier thesis by the authors that their discussion in this chapter should be basically limited to the phases of appraisal and recognition that are concerned with the management and direction of the school system.

Further to point up the work of the committee and to relate it to the difficult problem in this area, a part of the committee report is quoted.

The practical problems of teacher personnel take dozens of different forms. What should be the licensing requirements for teachers? What are

the minimum intellectual standards we should set for entrants into teacher training? Should teachers' salaries be based on the merit of the teachers? Should psychology courses for teachers stress learning theory or group dynamics? Which method of supervision has the best effects on teaching? Are married teachers more or less effective than unmarried? Do more liberally educated and broadly cultured teachers do a better job than those who have concentrated more specifically on professional training for teaching? Any school superintendent, professor of education, tax payer, school board member, parent, or pupil could think of many more questions of this kind.

The answers to all these questions, if they are to contain more than prejudice, must depend on our knowing what we mean by a good teacher. The laymen's and the scientist's question alike, the practitioner's as well as the theorist's involve eventually the question of criteria of teacher effectiveness, for these criteria define what we are seeking to understand, predict, and control. Until they have been established we do not even know for what we are searching.⁹

There is still so much bias and partisan feeling that it is doubtful whether the opposing viewpoints will be reconciled for some time to come. This situation complicates even the research efforts and retards progress. The great concern about this problem is indicated by the fact that since more than 570 references in teacher ratings have been listed in *Educational Index*. These writings, magazine articles, brochures, research papers, books, dissertations, and yearbooks constitute a voluminous professional collection of literature.¹⁰

In summary, we find that recent writings are more concerned with the desirability or undesirability of teacher ratings, while earlier writers seemed primarily concerned with the manner and techniques of rating. There is increasing recognition that teacher rating is complex; that factors such as the feeling of insecurity among teachers rated without participating in the rating process, the needs of children, and human relations must be considered. The contrast of the negative aspects of rating performance with positive aspect of appraising progress is increasingly

being noted; and there is a tendency to recognize self-evaluation by the individual and coöperative evaluation by the staff as being more productive than the administratively developed check list. The search for the qualities that make up effective teaching goes on, and with it must go continued effort to relate them to appraisal and recognition.

PLANNING THE USE OF TEACHER APPRAISAL TECHNIQUES

The authors have consistently advocated the use of clear-cut policies as guides in administering the personnel. There is no area where policy should have a stronger part than in this difficult area of appraising the personnel. Unless policy in this field has been developed through a participatory process and is thoroughly understood, it will not accomplish its purpose.

The authors of the personnel section of the Pasadena study have suggested the following policies as basic in developing a plan of personnel evaluation.

1. A realistic organization of the work of the personnel; including classification and job descriptions for at least the non-teaching staff
2. Establishment of levels of skill in each class, and in this area they believe it can be extended to the teaching area
3. The general qualifications of all personnel should be particularized
4. Construction of instruments designed to produce the information concerning the level of activities suggested in (2) above
5. It must be continuous and systematic¹¹

This report has obviously been influenced by practices in business and industry. There should be no objection, however, to considering their use in the public schools so long as they are adapted to the educational function they should serve.

Consistent with the suggested policies, and perhaps even basic to them, the same authors suggest the following as the three purposes that are served by an evaluation of the effectiveness of the personnel.

1. A reasonable community desire to reward effective employees and thereby retain their services as long as possible
2. A normal community desire to be rid of incompetents and those working at the lowest possible level of acceptable effort

3. A basis or the limits of the in-service training program that must be provided for all personnel¹²

These purposes seem sound and generally applicable, except that they do not include the professional emphasis that has been set up parallel to the legal responsibility of that of the board. It appears that in respect to their continuing welfare, the whole staff must assume certain responsibility in the area of evaluating its effectiveness.

Basically, then, in using appraisal techniques, the first step is to determine, through a participatory process, the policies that should guide those concerned with the problem. Those concerned in this instance are the public, the board of education, the administrative and supervisory force, and the staff itself. The second step is to establish the purposes to be served by the techniques; and the third step is an obvious but a very difficult one, namely, developing the means of appraisal and applying them.

SOME CURRENT PRACTICES

Before attempting to suggest a more direct application of appraisal techniques, an examination of present practices may well be considered. In considering this aspect of the problem, a loose use of the term *rating* becomes evident. While there is no available data revealing fully the present practices, the N.E.A. Research Division data are the most complete.

The appraisal and evaluation of the quality of teaching service may take a variety of forms, as has been indicated earlier in this chapter. Currently, about 44 percent of the cities give annual ratings to classroom teachers, and a like percentage give no rating at all. The other cities rate only the probationary teachers, or teachers believed to be failing, or both. It is difficult to compare the statistics of earlier years, but the N.E.A.

Less than half of the school systems make the ratings available to the teachers concerned. Although current practice is not ideal, since 1941 there has been an increase in the number of systems making ratings available to the teachers concerned.

Currently, the most frequently used rating form is one on which several qualities are evaluated, but no composite, comparative score is shown. The trend toward the use of this type of rating form has been substantial in the last ten years. At that time the use of a comparative scale, in which several levels of efficiency were used, was predominate.

The types and uses made of service ratings are shown in Table 27, page 332. Dealing with a classification of cities based on population, the table lists the members of the professional staff that are regularly rated, the number of cities reporting in each class, whether or not copies of ratings are given to those rated, the type of rating form used, and the uses made of the ratings. One of the interesting facts that can be drawn from this table is that the use aspect is not as extensively reported as is the extent of rating. This is consistent with the belief of many persons, including the authors, that rating plans in many situations have not been made functional. Tradition, in many instances, causes the continued use of certain rating plans, regardless of the use to which they will be put.

Usually, it is assumed that one of the most valid reasons for appraisal plans is that the results will be available for use in promotion practices. Associated with the study already reported on the Types and Uses of Service Ratings (Table 27) is one on Promotion Procedures Affecting Classroom Teachers (Table 28). While the latter study is not conclusive, it is disconcerting to discover that only 16 percent of the cities reporting use a systematic procedure, whereas Table 28 shows that 32 percent of the cities reporting use the service rating in selecting teachers for promotion. The inconclusiveness of these data further emphasizes the importance of establishing policy and purpose where appraisal methods are involved.

Table 28 does reveal certain significant data. The informality of personnel procedures is revealed by the practice in making selections among candidates for promotion: 84 percent of the reporting cities indicate there is no standard or formal procedure, as compared to 16

percent that follow a definite plan. The extent (62 percent of the systems) to which teachers in service are given preference in promotions to higher paid positions is very suggestive and the fact that in 21 percent of the systems only those who voluntarily make their wants known in respect to promotion are considered, suggests further need

TABLE 28. Promotion Procedures Affecting Classroom Teachers

1	Population Range						Total Num- ber 8	Total Per- cent 9
	500,000 and over 2	100,000 to 499,999 3	30,000 to 99,999 4	10,000 to 29,999 5	5,000 to 9,999 6	2,500 to 4,999 7		
What procedure is followed in making selection among the candidates for promotion?								
No standard procedure, handled on informal and individual basis	25%	57%	71%	85%	89%	91%	1,294	84%
Definite plan is followed, teachers submit credentials and promotional lists are established	75	43	29	15	11	9	253	16
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	1,547	100%
Number of cities reporting	19	76	228	337	378	512		
Are teachers within the service given preference in filling the higher paid positions?								
Yes	94%	79%	69%	62%	57%	60%	939	62%
No preference; outsiders on equal basis	6	21	31	37	43	39	574	37
Outsiders usually preferred	0	0	0	1		1	10	1
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	1,543	100%
Number of cities reporting	16	76	228	335	378	510		
What persons within the staff are considered for promotion?								
All teachers known to be qualified	71%	86%	77%	83%	82%	76%	1,167	77%
Teachers who voluntarily seek promotion	29	14	23	17	18	24	303	21
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	1,470	100%
Number of cities reporting	14	70	223	326	360	477		

for carefully developed personnel policy. It is doubtful if such practices grow out of policies in which staff participation is used.

APPLICATION OF APPRAISAL TECHNIQUES

It has been previously determined that from the standpoint of the purposes of this chapter, the aspects of appraisal should be chiefly directed to those matters which are concerned with the management and direction of the school program. Therefore the applications in this section will not deal with the matter of instructional improvement. This phase of the problem is considered in Chapter 9.

The administrative aspects of the problem are especially concerned with (1) selection, (2) promotion, (3) tenure, (4) salary advancement, (5) dismissal, (6) disciplinary action, and any other matters that affect the service record of the staff member.

All of these situations in the record of the staff member involve status or change, of some type. Each should require specific evidence upon which it should be based. The professional record of the staff member supplies this information. It carries the evidence of his original and continuing professional preparation, his health, his productivity as a professional person, including the exceptional services he may have rendered in the school system and the community. Beyond these evidences, that are essentially cumulative, there is the important year-to-year estimate or rating that school systems, as the N.E.A. studies show, have usually placed upon their employees. It is this latter aspect that causes difficulty and misunderstanding and which we have not completely mastered as a technique of appraisal. Judgment factors, concerning the individual, his fellows, or his superiors, are involved. To find a way to use these factors soundly and fairly is still a challenging problem in personnel administration.

The authors have chosen to refrain from suggesting a formula type of approach to the problem and have not quoted any of the well known "scales" to effect such a rating. Rather, they believe an awareness of the problems and issues, with the recommendation that each local situation poses its own problem, constitutes a sound approach. They have, however, in the closing section of the chapter, suggested some procedures for the development of a teacher-appraisal program.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS IN APPLYING APPRAISAL TECHNIQUES

There are several special problems involving such techniques that deserve separate consideration. Each is presented briefly with the suggestion that much additional study and research should be done. Each is an effort to determine "merit" and is sometimes associated with salary or other types of promotion.

Rating Based Upon Traits or Aspects of Teaching. This type is the most commonly used plan today, and usually consists of scales listing various factors assumed to be important to successful teaching. The

number of factors listed may vary from as few as 4 to as high as 40. Most scales provide for a 3 to 5 point marking system, usually described in qualitative terms, such as "inferior," "below average," "average," "above average," and "superior." Some provide for rating competency in terms of a numerical scale. An overall score, as a summary of the ratings in individual traits, is sometimes required. It is not uncommon in these plans to provide for a specific recommendation by the rater as to whether the teacher should be retained, transferred, or dismissed.

Ratings under a plan of this type are based upon the point of view and concepts of the rater. As different individuals rate the same teacher, variations in the rating, due to differences in point of view and concept, will appear. In order to secure a high rating, the teacher must work in a manner which the rater conceives to be good. This may have a tendency to discourage the use of imagination, initiative, and creativeness on the part of the teacher. If ratings are hidden away in confidential files, as is so often the case, little progress will result, and tensions may develop, especially among those who are nervous and insecure whenever the rater comes to visit or confer. If the ratings are made available, the teacher will have some knowledge as to why he was rated as he was. The presentation of such ratings must be done with great care and tact, since an otherwise good teacher, because of a low rating on some minor characteristic, may have his spirit crushed and enthusiasm dampened as a result of a rating.

It must be kept in mind that even though ratings based upon traits and aspects of teaching provide a reasonably comprehensive rating of teachers and teaching services, they do not adequately *analyze* successful teaching. It is questionable whether, in any given situation, any such scale really defines the elements of superior teaching.

Ranking of Teachers. This plan of rating requires the administrator to list in order, from highest to lowest on the basis of all-around teaching effectiveness, all teachers under his supervision. Frequently, individual reports on those listed in the lower quartile are required.

A plan of this type implies that those at the bottom of the list are poor teachers. Such may not be the case. To rank teachers in order of their effectiveness is very difficult, if not impossible. Such ranking

provides no basis for helping the teacher to improve his competency. If these ratings were made known to teachers, the effect on morale would be disastrous.

All-Inclusive Ratings. In this plan, no attempt is made to analyze teaching into its different attributes; rather, a single overall rating on competency is made. In some systems where this plan is used, the number or percentage of teachers who may be ranked in each category is prescribed. This is especially likely in systems where special salary recognition is given to those ranked as "eminently superior."

In general, the rater is not required to submit evidence or state reasons for the rating given. This lends opportunity for personal favoritism and "apple polishing"; and loyalty of the staff assumes a personal aspect, rather than one based on coöperative endeavor directed toward achievement of sound objectives. Teachers who fail to "co-operate" with the administrator could be punished under such a system, by being given low ratings. Since no evidence of strong or weak points is required, there is no guide to assist the teacher to improve his work.

The prescription of the number of teachers who may be ranked in each category, usually on a normal-curve basis, is neither logical nor statistically sound. Many factors of selection have been at work before teachers are employed in a school system, making the teacher group a selected population. Consequently, the use of techniques based on an unselected population are not reasonable. Two groups, particularly, may be affected by such procedure: (1) those marked unsatisfactory, who may be dismissed, transferred, or denied salary increments; and (2) those being considered for promotion to positions of higher status.

It is the feeling of the authors that a teacher should have knowledge of the rating given, in order that he may, if possible, overcome the weaknesses involving the rating, or in order that he may have the opportunity to defend and justify his work if there is a question concerning its validity.

Qualitative Ratings. This type of merit rating is usually a written statement, prepared by the principal or supervisor, concerning the work of the teacher. This may be either a general statement pertaining to the work of the teacher, or may consist of comments on specific

aspects of teaching. No quantitative score is given, and, in most cases, specific evidence of unsatisfactory work is required in the event an unfavorable report is submitted.

The same criticism of this plan is made that has been made of those described before: the judgment is still rendered in terms of the personal philosophy of the rater. Some administrators may tend to give everyone a satisfactory report in general, meaningless terms. This may be harmful in that teachers may be led to believe that there is no need for improvement.

Plans requiring qualitative statements may have advantages over those previously described, in that more freedom in evaluating and in flexibility is possible. The rater is encouraged to describe strong points as well as to list steps which may improve the effectiveness of the teacher.

Many, desiring to pay teachers what they are worth, no doubt had in mind some sort of merit rating by the official superior of the teacher. How is this to be done? A recent study conducted by William A. McCall, at the request of the General Assembly of North Carolina, failed to find any system of measuring teacher merit which he was willing to recommend for adoption as a basis for determining the salaries to be paid teachers. The study did establish the fact that the system of measuring merit by training and experience is of little value if salaries should be paid on merit, and that the system of merit rating by official superiors is of no value. The most valid index of the teacher's own worth was found in the confidential rating of each teacher by himself.¹¹ Self-evaluation plans will be discussed later in this chapter.

Of far greater importance than the problem of how teachers should be paid is the problem of how we can make the teacher a better teacher. It is in this area that McCall's study made its greatest contribution, and in doing so, has indicated one promising approach to a salary formula.

If all colleges and universities which train teachers will accept the responsibility for making their curricula functional and their marks and measures valid and will conduct additional research to this end, the writer

recommends, pending the discovery of a satisfactory formula, that salaries of young teachers coming into service be based solely on training. Thereafter, experience may be dropped from the salary formula, since those with the most experience, if they are professionally alert, will have the most training—and training that makes them better teachers. The valid cumulative record for each teacher will show how far that teacher has progressed toward the ideal teacher and thus will ultimately provide a valid basis for paying salaries according to merit.¹⁵

Ratings Based on Cumulative Professional Records. Advancement to a higher salary bracket is based upon an evaluation of the professional record of the teacher, when these plans are used. Annual salary increments may be automatic within a bracket until the next higher level is reached. The teachers' salary law, passed in New York in 1947, is an example of this type of plan.¹⁶ Such a plan required the keeping and maintaining of an extensive cumulative record on teacher competency for each teacher. Evidence of teacher productivity, teacher health, professional growth and development, growth and development of pupils, community and professional service, and exceptional service to boys and girls might well be included in such a file. The New York law required that administrative officers be advised by a committee of teachers and members of the supervisory and administrative staff of types of information that should be included, how the evidence is to be obtained, standards for promotional increment, and similar matters. In all such plans, the final responsibility for evaluating the teacher's competency and the granting of promotional increments in salary lies with the board of education.

Under this plan, it is obvious that an adequate personnel file must be maintained. One major issue is that of determining how far a system should go in the collecting of pertinent data for the record, and what use should be made of the information after it is assembled. Cumulative personnel records, if used for merit advancement, may give undue recognition to the individual who is adept in getting publicity for his activities or who is active and aggressive outside the classroom. We

still lack valid methods for measuring pupil growth and development in all aspects. This makes it difficult to get reliable evidence into the personnel file on what happens to pupils under the direction of the teacher. Hence, evidence in the file pertaining to teacher competency, as it relates to the growth and development of boys and girls, will be at a minimum.

ADVANCEMENT BASED ON RATING BY AN EVALUATION BOARD

Many suggestions have developed in attempting to make the merit approach work. One such program has been suggested by G. Robert Koopman.¹⁷ This type of plan, sometimes referred to as the "career-teacher" plan, makes possible a continued advancement in salary throughout the entire teaching career, based upon selection by a group of one's own peers. The theory upon which this plan is based sounds excellent but problems develop when the implementation begins. Such a plan usually provides for a "growth period," during which time the teacher enters on a probationary status and continues to advance automatically on the salary schedule for a predetermined number of years (eight years has been recommended), at which time the teacher becomes eligible to advance to the "career-teacher" rank. The achievement of this rank is contingent upon the recommendation of the evaluation board, and approval by the board of education.

It has been suggested that the evaluation board be composed of two classroom teachers from the same system (one from the same school level as that of the candidate for evaluation, and one from a different level); the principal from the school in which the teacher is assigned; a member of the board of education; a classroom teacher with a comparable assignment in another school system; a consultant in instruction from another school system; and a consultant in teacher personnel administration from a graduate school of education. The members of this board must be agreed upon by the superintendent and the candidate. A different board would be selected for each candidate under consideration for advancement. It is the responsibility of the board to secure evidence pertaining to the professional success and qualifications of the teacher, to evaluate the evidence, and either to

recommend or not recommend the teacher for promotion to the career-teacher rank.

The tremendous expense involved and the time necessary to gather and evaluate evidence is obvious. Such a plan would probably not be practical, except possibly in systems of much wealth or in small systems where only an occasional teacher would be eligible. The problem of weighted evidence in favor of the aggressive or spotlight-seeking teacher, discussed in the previous section, is also applicable here. The principal's or supervisor's idea of good teaching would still be a dominant factor. The failure of the board to recommend favorably might have a demoralizing effect on those not selected. There is little inherent in the plan to encourage further professional development once the teacher has achieved the career-teacher status.

The Commission on Teacher Evaluation of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development points out that while the career-teacher plan calls for higher maximum salaries than prevail currently for most classroom teachers, it does not provide that this maximum be reached until late in the professional career of the teacher. In most of the present salary schedules, the teacher reaches the maximum in twelve to sixteen years, and remains at that level for the remainder of his career. The monetary advantage under the career-teacher plan is not as great as it may appear to be at first.¹⁸

VALIDITY OF "MERIT" RATINGS

Over the past several years debate has raged concerning the validity of "merit" ratings. School systems have frequently adopted plans of one type or another, and abandoned them after experience showed that the results were not what had been expected and that they frequently defeated their own purposes through lowered staff morale. The concern of laymen has been cited and the efforts of states such as New York, which geared "merit" to the salary schedule, has been discussed.

Herein lies the tremendous problem of developing evaluation processes that will improve the staff rather than retard it. The American Education Research Association Committee¹⁹ agrees that effective-

ness on the part of the teacher is reflected in effects on pupils, effects on school operation, and effects on school-community relations. Each of these has many facets which are difficult to evaluate.

Lay concern in this area has been reflected in actions of boards of education, survey commissions, and other groups advocating different types of merit rating. The controversy in New York State, wherein merit rating was geared into the state salary structure has received wide attention. In instances of this sort evaluation or merit rating has seemed to have an adverse effect upon morale and consequently the coordination of the personnel.

A state-wide study as a result of a legislative action in North Carolina, entitled *Measurement of Teacher Merit*, rests its case on the criterion that teacher worth be evaluated upon "The teacher's proved ability to produce growth in pupils."²⁰ However, the report concludes that

All things considered, *this research failed to find any system of measuring teacher merit which the writer is willing to recommend be adopted as a basis for paying the salaries of all teachers. This study did establish that the existing system is of little value if salaries should be paid on merit, and the system of merit rating by official superiors which the State was considering for adoption is of no value.*²¹

The research does point out "that successful teachers possess certain characteristics in higher degree than do unsuccessful teachers, and it is reasonable to assume that these characteristics are causally related to success."²²

SELF AND JOINT EVALUATION PLANS

Using the idea that the basic purpose of appraisal is the improvement of the individual, various self and joint evaluation plans have been devised. These plans are actually more supervisory than administrative in nature, but are presented here to round out the discussion.

Scales or Guides for Self-Evaluation. These usually consist of a list

of characteristics which teachers may use to rate themselves. The teacher rates himself, usually on a 3 to 5 point scale, on questions comprising the list of traits. In the main, personal traits and participation of the teacher in professional and social affairs are emphasized in these forms. They do not describe desirable practice nor do they give guidance as to what constitutes good practice. There is little emphasis on what happens to boys and girls. Unless these forms are used as a part of a well-rounded in-service program, they are of little value in stimulating teachers to do a better job with boys and girls.

The teacher himself is in the best position to know whether or not he is achieving desirable results, hence should be the primary individual in appraising his own effectiveness. This self-evaluation can be made adequately only through the teacher's capitalizing on the participation of students, co workers, and parents. Pupil participation can be of value in planning, carrying out, and evaluating the success of work units or activities engaged in while living together at school. Parents through conferences, home visits, or group meetings will afford an opportunity for the teacher to know of the work of the school from the point of view of the parents. Group planning by faculty and staff members provides means to help the teacher evaluate his effectiveness. As teachers are encouraged to evaluate their own teaching, they may well decide to develop appropriate instruments to be filled out by the various individuals affected. The authors recommend that a teacher use these appraisals made by pupils, colleagues, supervisors, and principals in his own self-evaluation.

One self-evaluation questionnaire for teachers-in-service provides the teacher with an analysis of himself in seven areas: (1) teaching satisfactions; (2) relationships with students; (3) professional points of view; (4) community relationships; (5) professional relationships; (6) recreation and activities; and (7) physical well being. This questionnaire has been described by Thelma I. Schoonover and John E. Horrocks.²³ These seven areas provide a summary of teacher contacts within the framework of which it is possible for the teacher to examine his relationships, his activities, his opinions, and his feelings.

The replies which he accumulates in total upon completion of the entire questionnaire provide a basis for his own evaluation of himself, in comparison of others if he wishes, but certainly in relation to the fields in which he is a contributing and effective member of his educational and social group.

Joint Evaluation Procedures. In plans of this type, the work of the teacher is evaluated by the teacher and the rating officer, usually the principal. In some forms used in joint evaluation, traits or good practices for teachers are listed or described, enabling the teacher to know what the school system considers necessary to good teaching. Many times, conferences on the results of the evaluation are held. In some instances, the teacher and principal exchange forms, enabling the teacher to learn of his deficiencies as viewed by the administrator.

Joint evaluation can be of considerable value if mutual respect and confidence exist between the teacher and principal. If the teacher feels that he must conform to the ideas of the principal in order to get a good rating, then the use of this type of procedure is of little value. Joint evaluation plans should be based on educational goals co-operatively developed and mutually acceptable to both teachers and administrators. An understanding of what constitutes good teaching and good learning should be understood by all concerned. Joint evaluation plans lack the comprehensiveness of the cumulative teacher record system previously discussed. Some features of the cumulative record system could desirably be included in the joint evaluation plan.

SUGGESTED PROCEDURES IN DEVELOPING A TEACHER APPRAISAL PROGRAM

At the risk of being repetitive the authors have summarized their thinking in the section that follows. The statement is more philosophical than factual and amounts to an elaborated statement of principles. This approach seems necessary to clarify this confused and controversial area.

Whenever school administrators are faced with conditions which create a need for rating in connection with promotion and salary increments, a demand for some instrument of measurement by means

of which greater objectivity may be introduced into the appraisal procedure is created. The administrator often finds himself in a dilemma since teacher growth is so intertwined with a host of factors such as a teacher's personality traits, the climate and environment of the particular school, in-service experience, and professional affiliations. Teacher growth follows no established pattern. Teachers may be reluctant to participate in any evaluation program which they feel might be used against them, while at the same time they are anxious to participate in such programs which further their own professional competence.

Evaluation is part of guidance designed to improve teachers and teaching. Such a program involves wise counseling and coöperative planning. It implies more than testing, measurement, or rating. It involves recognized objectives and ideals. An appraisal, to be valid, must be related directly to the factors to be appraised.

THE OBJECTIVES

The important element in the appraisal program is the objective. The criteria of good teaching rather than techniques or devices must be uppermost in the minds of those concerned. The overall objectives or set of criteria should be developed by the administrator with his teachers and members of his staff in terms of the local educational program. The use of criteria in published appraisal instruments should be used with great care since objectives set by one group will not be exactly similar to those set by any other group.

In the opinion of the authors, the determination of the objectives should be a coöperative enterprise involving pupils, school personnel, and lay citizens, including the board of education. This first step may be accomplished through the work of committees, and group meetings including both faculty and parent-teacher meetings, under the guidance and leadership of the superintendent. The determination of objectives when voluntarily assumed as a coöperative responsibility of the group assists the individual in identifying himself with the objectives of the evaluation program and creates a vital interest in evaluating progress toward the objectives.

EVALUATION A PART OF THE SCHOOL PROGRAM NOT AN END PRODUCT

Evaluation must be an integral part of the school program for improving the educational process. True evaluation is permeated with the idea of improvement and growth through the analysis of strengths and weaknesses of the person evaluated. Too frequently, rating and testing is considered an end in itself, with the sole objective being a recorded score or rank. Often, too, teachers feel that the principal or other rating officer is sitting in judgment making a final verdict. Instead, the appraisal program should be one of counseling and guidance, giving inspiration and encouragement that will lead to self-improvement.

Once the objectives have been coöperatively agreed upon, they must be constantly kept before all concerned, and work toward their accomplishment begun. It must be remembered that professional growth in the accomplishment of these goals begins at the point which the teachers have reached and goes on from there. Means whereby the individual becomes an essential part of the on-going program must be found. Teachers must be helped in every way to believe in themselves as competent professional persons capable of growth, change, and intelligent action. Through frequent formal and informal contacts by the administrator starting with the teacher's first day on the job much can be done to create a friendly, constructive, willing attitude toward the program of professional improvement.

FINDINGS SHOULD BE USED

Evaluation is of little value unless the weaknesses revealed are corrected. Evidence as to the effectiveness of a teacher has value only to the extent it is understood, accepted, and used by the teacher in self-improvement. The collecting of information for the file is of practically no value at all. The administrator and teacher both will be aware of the strengths and weaknesses which form the basis of merit rating for salary and promotional purposes and for teacher improvement if evaluation is achieved as part of the in-service program of the school system.

The use of information collected or noted is of little value in teacher improvement unless it is timely. The authors have previously pointed out that teachers should have the opportunity to overcome difficulties and an opportunity to defend and justify their work. To be meaningful, suggestions and comments pertaining to the work of the teacher should be made as situations are noted and not allowed to accumulate for the once-a-year or once-a-semester conference. Complimentary remarks are as important as those of fault finding. This process will require time of the administrator but will be well worth-while, especially as it makes the teacher a more integral part of the program.

FEAR OF APPRAISAL MUST BE DISPELLED AND PLANNING AND PROCEDURES COÖPERATIVE

Teachers tend to be apprehensive about ratings as such. Teachers must be thoroughly acquainted with what is expected of them and the appraisal techniques to be used. Teachers who understand the purposes and procedures of the appraisal program may still, in the main, be quite willing to participate. Security and emotional stability are important aspects of any learning situation. Threats to security tend to make teachers frustrated, apprehensive, and disorganized in their thinking. The evaluation of teacher effectiveness must be based on wholesome human relationships. Teachers must be helped to see that evaluation is a source of aid.

A complete understanding between teachers and administrators of the purposes and criteria of evaluation can be attained only through coöperative planning of the appraisal program. The coöperative study of existing and past practices, coöperative consideration of various approaches to the problem, and discussion of methods and techniques that might be used in the appraisal process by those concerned are all parts of the coöperative planning so necessary to the successful development of an evaluation program.

The atmosphere of coöperation must be maintained in the application of whatever methods are selected. Teachers should be encouraged to use techniques for self-appraisal. Frequent teacher-administrator conferences are essential. Methods and procedures of appraisal are best

determined by those who use them. This places the responsibility for selection, development, and use upon all persons directly concerned with the outcome of the program.

It is the conviction of the authors that the best decisions are the result of the coordinated thinking of the widest possible number of those who are affected by the result of the thinking. The administrator must make possible wide and free participation by all those concerned with the outcome in order to assure greater cooperative responsibility for the continuous evaluation of the program. This involves the respect for the individual. Each person must "belong" to the group. He must feel that he is necessary, that he has contributed to the thinking and helped in making the decision, that he is wanted and has status. All of us must understand and appreciate the differences which can and do exist among people. It is through these differences that growth and improvement are achieved. Attitudes of kindness, consideration, and sympathetic understanding are required. All of this will help to remove from the mind of the teachers the fear of appraisal.

Coöperative planning and procedures may be secured through series of staff meetings, committees, or individuals studying existing and past appraisal practices, or by studying and reporting on various approaches to the problems.

APPRAISAL IS CONTINUOUS AND COMPREHENSIVE

Techniques of appraisal must be flexible, adaptable to change, since goals are also tentative, and subject to change with the various needs of the situation. Techniques must be comprehensive since they must appraise, not individuals, but results of intelligent efforts toward improvement of rich and effective living of individuals and groups.

Appraisal of teachers should be a continuing rather than a periodic procedure. The waiting for the annual "spring check-up" accompanied by living in fear and trembling, and the resulting teacher frustration, is undesirable and unnecessary. Administrators may be justly criticized if the annual evaluation for merit rating purposes only reveals weaknesses concerning which no previous help had been given. Such continuing appraisal requires frequent observation in the classroom and regularly scheduled conferences. These conferences may be individual,

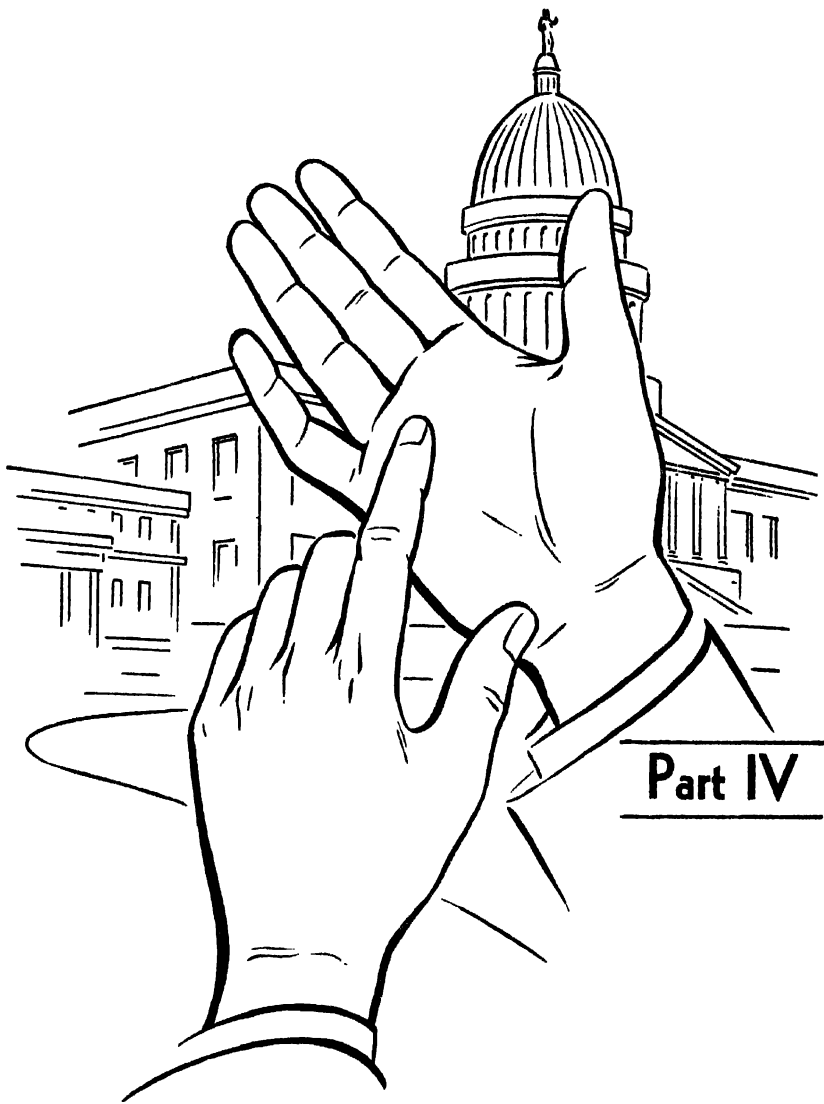
group, or both, and should include a series of discussions on what constitutes good teaching. Teachers should be encouraged and permitted to participate actively. Procedures of this type will help to cultivate common ground and to form a basis for better relationships between the teacher and administrator.

RATINGS CAN BE CONSTRUCTIVE

Proper and thoughtful development and use of an evaluation program may provide a means for promoting good relationships within the school. Properly handled, cooperative development of such a program provides the administrator with an opportunity to reveal himself as a source of help rather than a source of judgment, to show a constructive attitude toward appraisal, and to demonstrate fairness and loyalty to his teachers. Teacher participation will tend to give them a feeling of security, and a better understanding of administrative problems. Ratings involving comparisons between teachers create extremely precarious situations. Such rating may become a real menace to staff morale and careless use may destroy completely the "teamwork" in a school system.

To be worth-while the authors believe that evaluation must be a guidance procedure, directed at helping the teacher help himself teach children more effectively. A counseling program of this type may result in guiding unsuccessful teachers out of the profession rather than necessitating dismissal. Cases in which teachers may become unyielding to reason because of frustration and disorganization must be recognized. These cases are generally recognized by the faculty, and when released will result in a minimum of fear on the part of the rest of the staff.

Teacher evaluation is an opportunity, not just a responsibility. When done *to* teachers it is generally harmful; when done *by* teachers in cooperation with administrators it is desirable.



Part IV

Problems Related to Personnel Administration

A body of public employees as large as that associated with public education, and as intimately concerned with the public welfare, must expect to face many problems. These problems concern the educational profession itself as it struggles to be more efficient and effective and also involve its relations with the public generally. The relationships of a professional body, which is lay controlled in respect to its standards and to its employment, are surrounded by unusual conditions which make professional activities difficult. The problems are further complicated by the relationships to the nonteaching employees.

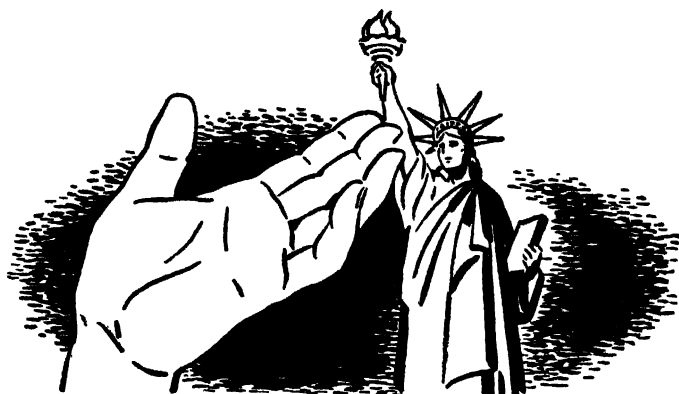
Among the problem areas that involve the profession's relationship to the public generally is the freedom that it enjoys to teach the truth in an unrestricted manner. It is to be expected that such a problem will result in pressures and misunderstandings, and that it will prove difficult for the profession to retain its academic freedom. This is one of the current major issues facing the profession and the country generally, and the authors have attempted in Part IV to present a forthright yet thoroughly defensible position in respect to this problem. Throughout the text the authors have attempted to develop the point of view that sound personnel policies are indispensable to effective public education, in contrast to attempting to urge the point of view of a particular group, be it the classroom teachers, the administrators, or the lay public. A policy in respect to academic freedom is one that is equally important to the profession and the country generally. It is in this relationship that the emphasis is placed on the importance of freedom to teach and learn.

The emphasis that has been placed upon the importance of improving professional status throughout the text requires that an assessment be made of the status of the teaching profession and its opportunities for further growth. In the succeeding chapters it is demonstrated that while much has been achieved in this respect there is still much to be done. In making this assessment the authors have attempted neither to overdraw the achievements or the shortcomings. In their opinion, it is a hopeful situation, yet one requiring a forthright program for further improvement.

Partly by way of summary, but also to emphasize their importance, certain challenges have been presented in the closing chapter. Each of the problems that is presented in this chapter has been touched upon in one or more ways in earlier chapters. However, from the review of the litera-

ture and the study that has gone into the development of the content of the text, the problems that are summarized in the closing chapter seem to stand out in bold relief and dwarf the multitude of other problems that must be faced in studying the educational personnel. The authors have consciously limited their discussion in this section to problems of the educational personnel.

While no specific solutions are suggested in this summary chapter, the problems are so closely related to the earlier discussions that they are not being submitted to the reader without background or suggestions for solution. Too frequently, school administrators have sought answers that might be applied to specific situations without giving adequate consideration to the persons or conditions that were involved. Consciously, the authors have attempted to provide basic information, make suggestions in regard to procedure and human relations, and to emphasize the local and statewide solution of problems. The future progress in personnel administration is dependent much more upon the human factors than upon formulae for the solution of problems. In their earlier statement of a point of view, emphasis was placed by the authors upon the importance of the development of people, through the process of democratic leadership wherein the administrator works with his professional colleagues, with each recognizing his responsibilities. This thesis is even more important in dealing with such problems as are presented in Part IV, which represent some of the more pressing issues confronting the profession.



CHAPTER 13

Freedom To Teach and Learn

A discussion of the subject of this chapter must necessarily be preceded by an understanding of the relationship between our democratic society and the public schools. Over three hundred years ago, an American colony required each town to appoint a teacher when it had reached a population of fifty householders. An historian, commenting on this early law establishing the beginnings of our public school system, said, "The child is to be educated, not to advance his personal interests, but because the state will suffer if he is not educated." It must follow that the school, and, therefore, the teacher, have a unique role in our democratic society. This role includes not only affording an opportunity for each new generation to achieve an understanding of the culture in which we live and which has nurtured us, but also providing a climate in which learning and progress can be fostered. Such a climate develops only under conditions where the teacher and the

child work unhampered in seeking the truth. Freedom to teach and learn, then, is fundamental to democracy itself, and has no more important relationship than to the public schools.

THE ROLE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL IN A DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY

The vital importance of an enlightened citizenry has been restated in almost every organic document establishing the American form of government at the state and national levels that has been written. The earliest leaders of our country recognized the problem of public education. Washington, Jefferson, and Madison, to name a few, indelibly fixed the importance of eliminating ignorance in a nation of self-governing people.

Jefferson's words cannot too often be recalled. "It is an axiom in my mind," he wrote to George Washington in 1786, "that our liberties can never be safe but in the hands of the people themselves, and that, too, of the people with a certain degree of instruction." It was in accordance with these beliefs that at the first session of the Virginia legislature after the Declaration of Independence, he proposed a bill for the more general diffusion of learning.²

The public schools are the proud product of a staunch belief in the importance and value of human personality. Through them, every person in our country has an opportunity to develop himself and contribute to the social group. To enable the individual to make this contribution, the public schools must accept certain goals in the discharge of their social role. In accepting this responsibility, the public schools become the unifying force in America. No other single group institution influences the lives of so many citizens.

Men like Jefferson and his contemporaries were aware, too, that the educational system of a democratic society occupies a unique position among its institutions. It is the chief hope for developing wisdom in successive generations of citizens. At the same time, its character, like that of all institutions of democracy, is determined by the measure of wisdom its citizens already possess. If education fails, it corrupts the

judgment of the people who are the only agents by which it can be regenerated. Bad schools will produce citizens incapable of perceiving their effectiveness. A vicious circle of corruption, a desperate spiral downward, can thus be set up in a democratic society. The reverse is fortunately also true. Good schools may contribute to the development of a wise citizenry capable of maintaining and improving the quality of the educational system.

So greatly has our democratic society accepted and been affected by this institution that at the present time nearly one-fifth of our entire population is either attending the public schools or participating in their operation. While we have not achieved perfection, we have moved far in the direction that Horace Mann believed we should go. His beliefs, expressed by the following quotation, might well be a part of our modern concept of the place of education in our democratic society:

I believe in the existence of a great, immortal, immutable principle of natural law, or natural ethics—a principle antecedent to all human institutions, and incapable of being abrogated by any ordinance of man; a principle of divine origin, clearly legible in the ways of Providence as those ways are manifested in the order of nature and in the history of the race, which proves the *absolute right* to an education of every human being that comes into the world; and which, of course, proves the correlative duty of every government to see that the means of that education are provided for all.³

The most fundamental concepts of the necessity for a well-informed citizenry are contained not only in the philosophy of professional educators; they are perhaps best expressed in the words of one of our greatest political philosophers, Jefferson, who saw in education a means to attain the following ends:

1. To give every citizen the information he needs for the transaction of his own business
2. To enable him to calculate for himself, and to express and preserve his ideas, his contracts, and accounts, in writing

3. To improve, by reading, his morals and faculties
4. To understand his duties to his neighbors and country, and to discharge with competence the functions confided to him by either
5. To know his rights; to exercise with order and justice those he retains; to choose with discretion the fiduciary of those he delegates; and to notice his conduct with diligence, with candor and judgment
6. And, in general, to observe with intelligence and faithfulness all the social relations under which he shall be placed⁴

Contemporary history, as well as that associated with the founders of our country, continues to emphasize these basic concepts. In a statement issued when he left the Harvard University presidency to enter the public service of the United States, James Bryant Conant said:

It would be a sad day for the United States if the tradition of dissent were driven out of the universities. For it is the freedom to disagree, to quarrel with authority on intellectual matters, to think otherwise, that has made this nation what it is today. . . . Our industrial society was pioneered by men who were dissenters, who challenged orthodoxy in some field and challenged it successfully. The global struggle with communism turns on this very point.⁵

To perform their expected role, the public schools must, then, serve every individual and segment of our society. They must retain their nonpolitical, nonsectarian, and academically free position if they are to keep this role of serving all and playing into the hands of no special interest.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND FREEDOM TO TEACH AND LEARN

If the public schools are to serve all the people and are to be in a position to keep the citizenry sufficiently well informed that it can meet the complicated issues that develop in every age and historical period, they must be effectively free.

It is inconceivable that any other than a free institution can deal

constructively with the issues that affect freedom. The exercise of arbitrary power over man's thoughts has been held as the most detested of all oppressions. Freedom to think and speak is firmly fixed in the American Bill of Rights. Freedom of the press is an empty privilege unless there is something to express. The right of assembly is necessary for intelligent discussion. So the several freedoms are empty indeed, unless they are supported by a system of public education where there is freedom to learn. This objective is not a whim, but a prime necessity, if citizens are to be prepared to make intelligent decisions in public affairs.

The nature of the constant conflict in which the schools engage to remain free and to serve their function in a democratic society is discussed at length in *Educational Freedom in an Age of Anxiety*, the 12th Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. In the concluding chapter, H. Gordon Hullfish, the editor of the Yearbook, says:

American education has inherited the opportunity to work on the side of freedom, in the same way that our citizen has inherited the right to suffrage. To be free to vote, however, does not guarantee that the citizen will be free in his voting. All that is guaranteed, and this only so long as we understand its meaning sufficiently to hold fast to this line with our past, is that each generation will not have to face the impossible task of establishing the right of suffrage within its own lifetime. Nor does the fact that the schoolman is free from the guidance of an official pedagogy give assurance that this freedom will be reflected in the character of the schools. Yet to have this much freedom is to be in a position to achieve it further. The initial resource is opportunity. We may fritter it away, however, by an unconsidered restriction here and another one there, all the while forgetting that to help the individual achieve freedom within the life he shares with his fellows is the main task confronting the schoolman in this culture.⁶

The term "academic freedom" has become widely applicable to the concept of freedom to teach and learn that has been used so far in this discussion. To provide a basis for furthering understanding, the following is a standard and accepted definition of the term. It is expressed in a series of "rights" for the teacher:

1. Liberty to teach, study through the medium of research, and publish opinions and findings without coercion or censorship through the state or any of its units of authority, such as school boards
2. The right of teachers, especially at high school and college levels to "teach the truth as they see it," without interference from lay boards, governmental authorities, or pressure groups
3. Freedom of speech, of the press, and of petition in those fields of study in which one is especially competent
4. The right to interpret facts without coercion⁷

One of the major organizations in this country that has attempted to preserve the rights of faculties to practice academic freedom is the American Association of University Professors. Composed chiefly of persons working at college and university level, and dealing with research which is frequently controversial, this organization has labored diligently to maintain academic freedom. Its strength grows out of its many experiences in asserting the academic rights of members and, on many occasions, of defending members wrongly accused of misusing their positions as teachers or researchers. The organization attempts to find the facts involved before taking a position, and only does so when its member is in the right. The Association has expressed its point of view in its statement of principles concerning academic freedom as follows:

- a. The teacher is entitled to full freedom in research and in the publication of the results, subject to adequate performance of other duties
- b. The teacher is entitled to freedom in classroom in discussing his subject, but he should be careful not to introduce into his teaching controversial matter which has no relation to his subject
- c. The teacher is a citizen, a member of a learned profession, and an officer of an educational institution. When he speaks or writes as a citizen he should be free of institutional censorship or discipline, but his special position imposes special obligations. He should at all times be accurate, should exercise appropriate restraint, should show respect for the opinions of others, and should make every effort to indicate that he is not an institutional spokesman⁸

Such a definition has as its basis the firm belief that education and democracy are inseparable. It further suggests that there are certain responsibilities that teachers must assume when exercising the rights implied in the definition. These responsibilities are well expressed in *Schools and Our Democratic Society*:

1. Refraining from partisan or sectarian advocacy in classrooms
2. Respecting the rights of disagreement and independent judgment on the part of students
3. Placing the stress on the development of reflective-thinking skills rather than upon acceptance of particular conclusions
4. Exercising good judgment in relation to emotional problems and needs of children at various maturity levels
5. Avoiding meeting community quirks head-on unless they involve basic issues of the democratic faith
6. Working with lay people and local administrators in defining the scope and direction of academic freedom⁹

In accepting the rights and responsibilities, teachers and laymen alike should look upon them as indispensable conditions if the social goals of education in a democratic society are to be realized, in contrast to the point of view that they are extended upon a paternalistic basis or that they represent whims of members of the profession.

The public school is equally as important as institutions of higher education in the maintenance of the letter and spirit of academic freedom. Because it reaches so many more people than the college and university, it has an especially heavy responsibility. Only in recent years, through the leadership of effective national education organizations, has the public-school-teacher group been made fully aware of the issues involving freedom to teach and learn.

In his annual report for the Secretary of the National Education Association has indicated a very sane application of academic freedom in this statement:

Public school teachers must have freedom to teach; its students freedom to learn. At the heart of the true educational process is intellectual integrity. It is not achieved by attempts to conceal the truth, however dis-

tasteful and unsatisfying truth may be. It is not achieved by giving undue emphasis to the unimportant or by glamorizing the new simply because of its novelty. Above all, intellectual integrity is not built upon bias or prejudice of the teacher, of the pupils, or of segments of the community working to secure acceptance of their own political, religious, or economic philosophies.

The implications of academic freedom are simple. Academic freedom means that students may have access to all the facts related to a significant issue that is under study. It is a safeguard against the advocacy in the classroom of any particularized viewpoint. It results in learning *how* to think, not *what* to think. It makes mandatory the classroom consideration at appropriate age levels, of all matters important enough to be in controversy among the American people. Its objective is to prepare citizens for intelligent decisions in public affairs.¹⁰

For the sake of its own adequate development, every community needs to consider whether or not the issues involving academic freedom are being resolved in its public schools.

CURRENT ISSUES AFFECTING THE FREEDOM TO TEACH AND LEARN

An examination of the issues confronting the public schools, in respect to whether or not they are effectively free, results in an inevitable conclusion that they are threatened in several areas.

This text is not a casebook on the instances where there have been breaches of academic freedom. Such publications as *The Harvard Crimson*, in its annual academic freedom report, and those of the American Association of University Professors and the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education, keep the profession fairly well informed concerning certain violations of the academic rights of teachers. On the other hand, hundreds of violations go unreported, either through ignorance or fear on the part of those affected. However, case records reveal that problems affecting freedom to teach and learn occur most frequently in the following areas:

1. Freedom of speech and writing
2. Teaching controversial issues

3. Textbooks and teaching materials

4. Inquiry and research

Each of these is important enough to justify some amplification and the reader may find that there are instances in his own community where these problems are issues.

Freedom of Speech and Writing. This phase of the problem has both a positive and a negative aspect. The positive aspect involves instances where teachers have exercised the right and have become involved in controversies or have been severely criticized for their actions. The negative aspect of the problem involves the many cases where, through fear or community precedent as to the place of the teacher, the right of freedom of speech and writing *has not been exercised*. In the authors' opinion, the current problem in the public schools especially involves the latter. In many instances, through pressures perhaps *indirectly* asserted, the teaching staff is denied these freedoms. The teacher, in the exercise of these freedoms, has responsibilities that have been previously set out in Chapter 5, and they should be observed.

The responsibility lies equally with the school administrators and boards of education to develop a "climate" where these rights may be exercised in a wholesome and effective manner.

Teaching Controversial Issues. This is one of the most difficult areas in a generally challenging field. The recognition that an enlightened citizenry must know how to deal with controversial issues suggests that the problem cannot be evaded because of its involvements. One of the most serious dangers is that teachers and other school officials, because of the difficulties involved, will simply ignore the issues and teach only such material as will avoid controversy. In discussing the teacher's work and responsibility, the authors have already expressed the opinion, in Chapter 5, that meeting adequately the challenge of handling the teaching of controversial issues is inescapably a part of the teacher's job.

An excellent statement of the teacher's position in regard to controversial issues was published by the New York City Board of Education in a social-studies-curriculum guide:

As a well-informed and active, intelligent citizen, the teacher cannot and should not be neutral, but must be fair. No one can expect a teacher

to "pass through scenes of raging controversy and passion with a serene curiosity, a suspended judgment, and a pair of white gloves." It would be inhuman to expect the teacher to "know everything and believe nothing." He must remember that as a public servant he represents all society and not one special interest. The teacher of the social studies recognizes how often his own data are inadequate, his judgments unscientific, and his conclusions uncertain. At times it may be advisable or necessary for the teacher to present his point of view on a controversial issue. He must on such occasions make clear that this is his personal opinion and that his ideas as well as the ideas of others may be challenged. The teacher must be certain to give adequate opportunity for the presentation of opposing viewpoints.¹¹

The adequate solution of this problem lies in a more courageous profession and one better versed in facts and techniques that will permit it to deal intelligently with issues, controversial and otherwise. Only a limited number of the profession have seriously considered this problem and are prepared to meet it. It also involves better lay relationships in which communication and planning are sufficiently broad so that the profession and the public will understand the motives of each other. The profession's protection of its members who, having followed ethical procedures, are attacked, is, of course, necessary until there is general acceptance by the profession and public generally that teaching about controversial issues is a necessary part of the teacher's job and is indispensable to our free society.

Textbooks and Teaching Materials. Scarcely a day passes without a newspaper account of an attack by individuals or organizations on the textbooks and teaching materials being used in the public schools. This is due to a lack of understanding on the part of such persons or organizations of the purpose of education, including the function of the textbook; a degree of irresponsibility by the attackers in some cases; and in a few instances, unwise textbook selections on the part of the educational staff.

The problem in this field is closely associated with pressure tactics and efforts from time to time to bar certain textbooks, and is not new on the American scene. During the period 1950-1952, organized attacks by such sources as Mrs. Crain's *Educational Reviewer* sometimes

led to the replacement of texts by those that do not deal forthrightly with the affairs of the day. In commenting on an interesting discussion of this problem in *What To Do About "Dangerous" Textbooks*, Earl James McGrath, former United State Commissioner of Education, states that:

It must be recognized that the textbook problem is complex and defies easy solution. Certainly it calls for thoughtful appraisal of many questions, among which I would suggest the following:

1. What is the school's responsibility in presenting the various viewpoints in classroom discussion of current economic, political, and social issues?
2. What is the role of the textbook in the education of our children for responsible citizenship in a democracy? How should the teacher fulfill his function as interpreter of controversial material in textbooks?
3. What are the respective spheres of responsibility of parents, civic groups, the press, students, board of education and the professional educator in the establishment of policies and procedures which should govern the selection of instructional materials to be used in our schools?
4. What should be done to insure that all groups enjoy adequate opportunity to present their opinions to the legally constituted authorities?

Educators and civic leaders have an obligation to lend their full energies to the solution of all the many problems besetting public education today. Only by a loyal and enduring partnership between our educators and the rest of the community can we maintain our public schools as the proving ground for American democracy.¹²

There is no disposition on the part of educators to withdraw the right of criticism of teaching materials used in the public schools, nor to question ultimate lay control. The problem is one of objectives and methods, and the desire on the part of teachers that the ends of democracy be served. The professional reputation of teachers is frequently at stake in this issue. It involves not only their competence in respect to teaching areas in which they are prepared, but also ability in community relations.

The tendency on the part of some school organizations to bar certain materials, through either administrative or board of education action, has created a serious problem in some parts of the country. The general opinion is that this is an ineffective way to deal with materials that may be unsatisfactory. A public relations problem of some moment usually arises out of such action and it may be that banned materials attain a certain martyrdom. The expression of a positive policy by school officials in respect to the issues involved is more defensible in a democracy than is piecemeal censorship.

Inquiry and Research. Basic to the entire field of academic freedom is the freedom to engage in inquiry and research. The entire field of education, as well as aspects of science and industry, are dependent upon the right to exercise this phase of academic freedom. This aspect of the problem is usually more associated with higher education than with the elementary and secondary schools. However, teaching the importance of, and developing interest in, this area are part of the teacher's job, especially in the secondary school. Increasingly, at all levels of education, the spirit of "finding the facts" should dominate teaching.

Former President Lowell of Harvard University, having viewed this whole problem, wrote at the end of his long career a statement that applies especially to higher education, but which in principle covers public education as well. He said:

Experience has proved, and probably no one would not deny, that knowledge can advance, or at least can advance most rapidly, only by means of an unfettered search for truth on the part of those who devote their lives to seeking it in their respective fields, and by complete freedom in imparting to their pupils the truth that they have found. This has become an axiom in higher education, in spite of the fact that a searcher may discover error instead of truth, and be misled, and mislead others, thereby. We believe that if light enough is let in, the real relation of things will soon be seen, and that they can be seen in no other way.¹³

RELATIONSHIP OF SUCH ISSUES TO DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY

The basis for this discussion is the establishment of the relationship of the issues to the maintenance of a democratic society generally, and

to democratic practices in administering the educational personnel.

Our willingness to let the principles of democracy operate without unreasonable restraint is at stake. A basic understanding of freedom is involved. Henry Steele Commager said, in a memorable address entitled "The Pragmatic Necessity for Freedom":

Freedom, I repeat, is a body of practices, not alone a body of principles. Freedom, you must keep in mind, is not a method of indulging error. It is a method of arriving at the truth. It is maintained, not out of sentimental regard for the welfare of society. We must insist, all of us, on freedom for the scholar, for the librarian, for the publisher, or the scientist; and for the same reason we must insist on freedom for the doctor and for the judge.

We insist on freedom of the doctor, not out of sentimental grounds, but because we want to get well; and we know that if we denounce a doctor who had diagnosed a cancer as TB, then we can't call on him the next time we are sick.

We preserve independence for the judge, because we want to see justice done; and if we move in on the judges as some legislatures seem to be doing, we will end up by destroying the system of justice—and we are the ones who will suffer, not the individual judges. We have to keep clear all currents of criticism, all currents of exploration and currents of discussion in every realm, in order to find the truth, in order to bring up a new generation which will be zealous to think for itself. We don't tell them what to think. We teach them, if we can, how to think. We must take our chances with differences of opinion. We must take our chances with error, if it is indeed error . . . if you make it impossible for first-rate people to write textbooks, you will get second-rate people writing them. If you make it impossible for first-rate teachers to teach, you will have second-rate teachers. The same is true of librarians, for you could get somebody in position of authority who would not know the difference between comic books and the classics. The result will be that you will get the kind of generation that doesn't know and doesn't care, a generation incapable of thinking for itself, because it has never been trained to think for itself.¹⁴

Such a concept of freedom as it relates to teachers and teaching would go far toward conserving human resources to the point where the most able people would teach and be attracted to the profession. It

would also lead to the use of techniques involving group action and processes that would develop a type of consciousness in respect to democracy that would have real significance for our society.

TEACHER OATHS AND RELATED STATE REQUIREMENTS

One of the controversial issues in the postwar period has been that of requiring public employees generally, and teachers in particular, to subscribe to loyalty oaths. It is generally agreed that public school teachers have the responsibility of building good American citizens. The extent to which requiring teachers to take loyalty oaths will help obtain better American citizenship has been in controversy.

It is not difficult to understand why the public, subject to the fears and tensions of the period in which we are living, should seek legislative means to try to assure themselves of loyal teachers. It is also understandable why public school employees should question the effectiveness of loyalty oaths, since for the loyal teacher the requirement is unnecessary, and for the disloyal one neither the oath of loyalty nor the prohibition of membership in subversive groups will necessarily achieve the results desired by those who sponsor loyalty-oath legislation.

Regardless of this opinion, the movement to require public school teachers to take an oath of allegiance or otherwise satisfy employing agencies that they are loyal to the government of the United States has been growing. In this movement teachers have been for the most part included with other public employees in the requirement. By the end of 1951, thirty-three states, Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia had statutes or state board regulations requiring teachers to take an oath of allegiance. The Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom of the National Education Association has made periodic studies of these requirements; their publication, *Teacher's Oaths and Related State Requirements*, supplemented by more recent data concerning legislative enactments in the states, gives an accurate picture of the situation.¹⁵

Wide variations appear in the legislation involving oaths in respect to whom they apply, when the oath is taken, and its exact nature. Generally, elementary and secondary teachers and other public school personnel are included, and usually the oaths must be taken when the person is certified or employed, or at both times. In some instances, in addition to the oath of loyalty, there is a prescription relative to teaching loyalty and patriotism. The California requirement is an example.

I solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will support the Constitution of the United States of America, the constitution of the State of California, and the laws of the United States and the State of California, and will by precept and example, promote respect for the flag and the statutes of the United States and of the State of California, reverence for law and order, and undivided allegiance to the government of the United States of America.¹⁶

This is in contrast to the somewhat more common requirement as exemplified by the Massachusetts law.

I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will support the Constitution of the United States and the Constitution of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, and that I will faithfully discharge the duties of the position of (insert name of position) according to the best of my ability.¹⁷

The most serious type of requirement, since it bears directly on the problem of freedom to teach and learn, is one like those required by Rhode Island and Georgia. In these instances the teacher is forbidden to teach about specific theories of government. Such a prohibition may lead to incompleteness in teaching which does not inform pupils of facts in world affairs. There is little question that a teacher of modern and current history would be thoroughly handicapped by such a requirement.

No matter how well meaning such requirements may be, they infringe upon the basic academic freedom of the teacher, and in all probability do not serve to eliminate a disloyal person, since such an individual will, in most cases, practice misrepresentation to the extent of taking such an oath with no intent to follow it. Fortunately, the

number of disloyal persons in the public schools has been proved to be extremely small, and there does not seem to be a serious threat to American democracy from this source. Perhaps more serious is the attitude of suspicion and fear which so-called "loyalty" legislation provokes. The Feinberg Law in New York attained notoriety in this respect. The following excerpt from a court decision centering around that law provides an excellent opinion on the effect of such legislation:

It is no answer to say that this measure is needed to combat the menace of Communism. Small service, indeed, to our democracy, is afforded by emulating the tactics of Communism, and by destroying the guarantees of freedom. . . . The court finds it hard to believe that it is necessary to resort to witch hunting in our schools to displace misfits. . . .¹⁸

Morale, so very important to the teacher because of the nature of his service, is greatly affected by such procedures. There is no difference in the intent of the organized profession, which on numerous occasions has moved to eliminate any subversive influences from its midst, and those who, through law and required loyalty oaths, attempt to meet the issues in this manner. The method of accomplishing the purpose, however, is frequently the difference between good and poor morale of staff members.

DEMOCRATIZATION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND FREEDOM TO TEACH AND LEARN

During the past several years one of the primary purposes of American teachers and educators has been to democratize the American public school. In spite of the democratic goals of the early political philosophers and some of the early educators, the public school system adopted many characteristics of European education which had been developed to serve another type of political society. One of the real issues in American education has been to obtain a democratic structure and practice in the public schools as they have grown in size and

scope. The schools are a social institution that responds slowly because of the fact that teachers all too frequently teach as they were taught. No sweeping changes can be ordered due to the decentralized nature of its control; therefore, the public school has changed very gradually. It has been estimated that it takes about fifty years for an idea that has been reasonably accepted to become fully implanted and practiced in the schools.

This discussion of the nature of change in the school system demonstrates the importance of any phase of teaching, but more especially any aspect that bears directly upon the school as a democratic institution.

It seems reasonable that democracy can best be learned in an atmosphere where it is practiced. If the school fails to practice the common democratic principles and incorporate them into its structure, the possibility of making them a part of the lives of boys and girls is greatly reduced. It therefore follows that not only should the school encourage democratic practices in respect to classroom procedure, discipline, organization, and relationships generally democratic in nature, but that teachers should have a degree of freedom to teach and to stimulate learning that will develop the spirit of democracy in the student.

It is in the realms of spirit that the connections between matters of academic freedom and the school as a democratic institution are best established. A teacher who feels that he is being limited in respect to his freedom to teach and stimulate learning is obviously not the best leader of pupils toward democratic goals, or the ablest contributor to a faculty whose goals should include striving for a more democratic school organization and procedure. A statement by Dr. Harold Benjamin, at one time the chairman of the Defense Commission of the National Education Association, illustrates in a basic manner the idea that the authors are attempting to present. Dr. Benjamin said, "Free men cannot be taught properly by slaves. Courageous citizens cannot be well educated by scared hired men."¹⁹

A situation where academic freedom prevails as a part of general high morale enables the teacher to function at his best and make his

greatest contribution to the school, which acts as a laboratory for democratic citizenship. The spirit of a teacher functioning democratically in his job is well expressed in an editorial which dealt with certain basic relationships of education to business and government. It concludes:

Education knowingly withholds no facts. And the educator will lead his students all around a subject. He will encourage questions. He will tolerate disagreements. If he is a true educator, those facts will have meaning for him. That meaning he will share, but not press. And if he is a teacher worthy of his calling he will have deep convictions of his own. These he will voice forthrightly but not impose.

Herein lie the moralities of education—not in the infallibility of its content, but in the honesty of its practice.³⁰

To meet this standard of performance the school must possess democratic characteristics, and the teacher must be free of restraints so that he will teach the whole truth and not avoid teaching about controversial issues, as is so frequently the case in the American public school today.

In "The Public School and the American Heritage," which is a policy statement written by the National Education Association's National Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education and other organizations, there appears a series of statements that might well characterize the learning situation in a democratic school. The approach is sound in that the point of view is that democracy must be exemplified in the learning situations. The statement follows:

Young people are entitled to be respected as individuals, respected for what they are and what they may become

Young people, to the extent of their growth and ability, are entitled to deal with the conditions and problems of their times

Young people are entitled to such knowledge and experience as are appropriate to the nature of the problems under study

Young people should learn that all ideas thoughtfully expressed are entitled to thoughtful consideration

Young people are entitled to the opportunity to develop the habits of critical thought which democratic society requires

Young people are entitled to build their own beliefs on the basis of the facts, theories, forces, and experiences which affect the judgments of citizens on contemporary issues²¹

Many aspects of the various phases of, and issues concerning, academic freedom are deeply interwoven with achieving these goals. The development of a more courageous and able professional staff to achieve the goals is of primary importance to the profession itself, but even more so to the nation whose continued existence as a democracy is so closely bound to freedom to practice the democratic processes.

Many laymen, rightly concerned with the threats of ideologies like Communism and Fascism, and endeavoring to protect our democracy, actually endanger it by seeking to circumscribe the teacher by limiting his freedom to teach. Such a shortsighted approach is not new in our country, and our great leaders have consistently warned against such practices. Statements by two of these leaders apply especially to the problem of the basic freedoms. Jefferson said, 'I have sworn upon the altar of God eternal hostility against any form of tyranny over the mind of man.' Later, Lincoln said, in a letter to a friend, "Those who deny freedom to others deserve it not for themselves, and under a just God, cannot long retain it." Our political philosophers are not the only ones who recognize freedom and education as being so basically important. The head of one of the great business enterprises of this country said in a recent speech:

Our public schools, in short, are the cement of our common heritage. . . .

As I see it, education must teach the individual to think—to think positively, analytically, and constructively. It must give the maturing mind a healthy skepticism and a spirit of intelligent inquiry. That is the kind of person-educated product, if you will, that gives our business system its dynamic and flexible nature. That is the kind of person on whom we de-

pend for the maintenance and improvement of our business organizations and our methods.²²

RESPONSIBILITIES ASSOCIATED WITH THE PRACTICE OF ACADEMIC FREEDOM

It is a common argument that the privileges accorded citizens in a democracy carry responsibilities equally important and demanding. Two phases of responsibility affecting the educational personnel are immediately apparent:

(1) The responsibility for preserving and promoting academic freedom; and (2) the responsibility for participation as individuals in constructive and democratic practices.

The first of these responsibilities has particular application to the practice of teaching and membership in the profession, while the second bears more directly upon the practice of citizenship by members of the profession.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR PRESERVING AND PROMOTING ACADEMIC FREEDOM

A constructive approach to this phase of the problem lies in the manner in which the profession conducts itself in the performance of its duties, and the vigor, tempered by mature judgment, used in defending its membership if it is under attack. Because a positive approach is the soundest, an understanding of certain ways that responsibility can best be exercised is desirable. Some of the considerations emphasized and already quoted on page 97 from *Schools and Our Democratic Society* are pertinent here.

Each of those points involves a degree of mature individual judgment, adequate consideration by faculty groups, understandings with laymen and boards of education, and relationships with children and youth that are characterized in the earlier statement concerning the learning situation in a democratic school.

One of the responsibilities of a mature profession is that in addition to setting up a code of ethics and determining standards of practice

for its members, it "polices" its membership. In other words, in addition to accepting the responsibility for protecting its member who is in the right and is endangered, it recognizes that it must criticize and even expel a member who fails to meet its standards. This responsibility has not been accepted by professional educators, but it is a matter they must face as they mature professionally. If members of the profession recognized that both concerns were involved in professional membership, they might operate at a higher level of professional competence, be more courageous, and at the same time, more judicious in the discharge of their duties. This kind of goal is never fully attainable by any profession. It is, however, an ethical standard toward which any profession might well aspire.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR PARTICIPATION AS INDIVIDUALS IN CONSTRUCTIVE AND DEMOCRATIC PRACTICES

The principle of citizen participation in the activities of his community and his government generally has a special application to the teacher's participation in constructive citizenship and democratic practices. The full practice of adult citizenship by a million well-educated and socially conscious members of the teaching profession would not only have a positive effect upon the general citizenship, it would also react favorably upon the profession itself. Inarticulateness has too long characterized the educational group. The policy of the National Education Association's Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education, referred to earlier in connection with characterizing the learning situation, has also included an excellent statement concerning this phase of the responsibility of members of the profession.

Teachers and administrators must show faith in the coöperative analysis and solution of common problems of youth and adults.

Teachers and administrators must encourage young people to locate, use, and evaluate relevant materials of instruction as they identify and analyze significant contemporary problems and form judgments about them. However, they must not direct or compel any particular judgments.

Teachers and administrators must protect young people from those groups which would limit freedom to learn and to know.

Teachers and administrators must accept their responsibility to treat ideas, issues, groups and individuals with fairness.

Teachers and administrators have an obligation to assume all of the rights and responsibilities which are the prerogatives of their fellow citizens.

Teachers and administrators must accept the responsibility of working with their fellow citizenry toward wider understanding and acceptance of the role of the public school in the American community.²³

The last two parts of the above statement are particularly applicable.

PROBABLE EFFECT OF SUCH PRACTICE OF GENERAL CITIZENSHIP

The practice of such general citizenship would, to a very large extent, solve the periodic attempts in some communities to control the teacher's personal habits and invade his privacy in a manner the community would not consider doing to other citizens. Concern by the public must necessarily be felt for the leadership of its youth, and there is no doubt that teachers should exemplify in their personal lives the best ideals and standards of conduct in the democratic society. This text has chosen to attempt the positive approach rather than to cite the occasional violation of the teacher's rights; the suggestion is constantly offered that these issues will be reduced to a minimum if the teacher sufficiently exercises the responsibilities of adult citizenship.

With decentralized and lay control of education, some efforts to control the teacher's personal habits, invade his privacy, and limit his freedom to teach and learn may be inevitable. If communities were helped to understand that this practice is detrimental to their schools and would bring investigation and perhaps unfavorable criticism to them, they would act with greater restraint and consideration. The profession must not shirk its duty either in dealing with these issues in the positive manner that has been suggested or in meeting the issues that may inevitably develop.

Most communities are realizing that restraints beyond the general good standards practiced by the community create situations in which

they are unable to staff their schools with able and well-adjusted teachers and administrators. Some readers may question the relationship of this discussion with the chapter emphasis, in many respects it is as much of a problem as other phases of freedom to teach and learn. Curtailment in one line is usually associated with restrictions in others, and it is unlikely that the teacher who is willing to live in a community which circumscribes his life in a fashion more extreme than its other good citizens practice, will be very courageous or even interested in teaching about controversial issues in the classroom.

One of the most thoughtful statements in respect to the integrity of the individual, to which this section is essentially devoted, is contained in the following:

We call upon Americans to reaffirm their faith in the integrity of the individual. We believe it basically important for all people to support educational efforts which respect the right of the teacher to seek and teach the truth as he finds it, and of the student to study differing views in arriving at his own judgments. The society toward which we work thrives on creative diversity and withers on coerced conformity.²⁴

The problem of both the laymen who control the schools and the professional group which operates them is to set up conditions which will permit the teacher to carry out the kind of job responsibility that was developed in Chapter 5. It is clear that a wholesome point of view with regard to freedom to teach and learn, by both the lay and professional groups, is one of these conditions.

RECENT ACTIVITIES OF THE PROFESSION DEALING WITH ACADEMIC FREEDOM

The profession at both the public school and college levels is currently engaged in an active consideration of the issues and problems involving the controversy associated with the freedom to teach and learn. It is being called upon to defend itself, and the flurry of investigations by congressional committees and other groups is causing the issues in respect to these freedoms to be more deeply considered than

ever before. Such conditions have led to action within the profession both to defend and interpret its position.

The activities of the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom of the National Education Association have exemplified how an organization operates both to protect its members and "police" the organization. Its history, as described in its reports and publications, reveals the need to be alert to infringements upon the contractual and tenure rights of teachers and the limitations upon the freedom to teach. Such organizations as the one to which we have just referred have a particular problem in avoiding defense of the incompetent and unsatisfactory teacher. The Committee has set these objectives to guide it and prevent its misusing its true function:

1. Assistance to the individual found to be unjustly treated
2. Prevention of further unjust treatment of employees
3. Permanent correction of conditions which cause unjust treatment
4. Development of public understanding and support of fair employment practices²⁵

Investigations consist of gathering facts, evaluating the findings, formulating the recommendations, and issuing a report. Reports do not have legal status, but they have proved to be powerful factors in relation to the individuals involved, boards of education, and the general public in the community.

The activities of the Defense Commission, another agency of the National Education Association, further indicate the widespread nature of the problems affecting teachers and teaching. This Commission grew up out of the need to: (1) give the public more understanding of the importance of education for all our people; (2) defend the cause of education against unjust attacks and investigate charges that involve teachers, schools, educational methods, and procedures; and, (3) work for educational conditions essential for the perpetuation of our democracy.²⁶ In its dozen years of activity it has made itself

felt in many ways and has accumulated experience that should make it even more effective in the future.

In the college and university field there has also been much activity. In some respects this activity has been even more far-reaching than the public school activities to which we have referred. In this area of education there has been a major struggle to define the rights and responsibilities of universities and their faculties in maintaining academic freedom. A recent report by a committee of the Association of American Universities goes far in defining these rights and responsibilities. While the report is obviously directed toward the problem related to Communism, its findings are quite fundamental. The report states that the colleges "have supplied intellectual capital as essential to our society as financial capital is to our industrial enterprise. . . . A university must, therefore, be hospitable to an infinite variety of skills and viewpoints, relying upon open competition among them as the surest safeguard of truth. Its whole spirit requires investigation, criticism and presentation of ideas in an atmosphere of freedom and mutual confidence."²⁷

The report further argues that, in turn, this freedom begets responsibility and that it is the duty of the university, with the coöperation of the staff, to define where individual privilege begins and ends. The contention of the report is in no wise to defend any subversive influence or activity, but to defend the independence of the university itself in uprooting such influences if they are found in the staff. The autonomy of local boards of education to deal with its problems of a similar nature may well be urged. Obviously this report is aimed at the congressional investigations which often have maligned the innocent as well as those whose guilt was in question.

While it is hoped that these problems, in both public schools and colleges and universities, are temporary ones growing out of the times in which we live, the profession must remain alert to their implications.

In all of the reports and investigations, as well as the statements of principle such as that found in the report to the Association of American Universities to which we have just referred, the integrity of the individual is basic. This quality has been emphasized in the following statement:

Only when academic freedom is carefully safeguarded against intrusions from without and against perversions from within—only then is freedom of inquiry safe, and only then is the future secure. Integrity is the heart of the matter. Given integrity, freedom has foundations; without it, all freedoms are endangered. No man shall be put in jeopardy for holding an opinion; that is the meaning of academic freedom. But when an opinion holds a man, freedom for him has become impossible because there is no integrity in him. Free inquiry into the evidence in the continuing search for truth is beyond the capabilities of the closed mind. Thus, the man who lacks basic integrity disqualifies himself as a candidate for the fraternity of the free. He is committed in advance to the betrayal of academic freedom to whatever dogma he espouses. He has the same standing in the citadel of democracy as any other traitor; and his treasonable presence within the college does not give him the right to claim the protection of the academic freedom which he has violated and which he with his closed mind seeks to destroy.²⁸

Such current consideration of the problems of academic freedom further demonstrates the timely nature of the issues that have been presented in the chapter. Too frequently, members of the profession consider such issues outside their experience and interest. Today these issues are affecting the lives of every member of the profession in one way or another and should be carefully studied.



CHAPTER 14

Improving Professional Status and Leadership

WORKING TOWARD PROFESSIONAL STATUS

Throughout the discussion the authors have referred to the teaching and administrative personnel of the public schools as members of a *profession*. It is recognized that the public school teaching and administrative personnel do not fully meet all of the features of professional membership, but their characteristics are such as to justify the general application of the term. An examination of their nature and characteristics further indicates there is much yet to be done to achieve *full* professional status. For that matter, every professional group falls short of fully achieving mature professional status. The age of the organized teaching profession and the conditions under which it operates have much to do with its achievement. An examination of some of the features that contribute to the identification of professions generally may be helpful in evaluating the teaching profession.

CHARACTERISTICS OF PROFESSIONS

Every person or group which participates in developing criteria to be used in characterizing a profession does so with a somewhat different emphasis. This variation develops out of a difference in point of view due to the varying functions of the professions. The following criteria of a profession are presented as a typical common core that is generally applicable. Obviously, an adaptation to the teaching group, or any other, must be made if the professional status of a given group is considered. Following the presentation of the "common core" of professional characteristics, each one will be discussed in relation to the teaching field. The following are suggested criteria or characteristics to which we have referred:

1. Specialized professional preparation over a considerable period is required for practicing the profession, and a background of general education and culture is also necessary. This preparation is usually followed by some sort of internship.
2. Selective admission procedures have been developed to safeguard the professional group in respect to both ability and character
3. The work involves the practice of an art and relies upon a highly developed body of scientific and philosophic knowledge
4. The members of the group carry on continuing in-service activities, based upon their own desire to improve
5. The members of the group regard their practice as a lifework
6. The membership evolves a high degree of unity, ideals, and purpose, and maintains its own organization, which has media of expression
7. Public service and the general welfare are exalted over personal gain, and the group regards itself as obligated to give greater service than is required by the legal code which governs it
8. A code of ethics is evolved governing both work and behavior, and it is widely adhered to within the group
9. The group has its legal status defined by state laws and exercises diligence in "policing" its own membership
10. While adhering to group standards, it recognizes the varied services to be performed by its membership, and the status of its members is defined on the basis of worth, involving both professional and community leadership

APPLICATION TO THE TEACHING PERSONNEL

Applying this level of evaluation involves placing the teaching group in a critical position. It, like any other profession, will suffer when examined for complete adherence to such a set of criteria. Like other fields, the teaching group will vary widely within its own structure in achieving these goals. The early chapters of this book stressed the extreme variation in the approximately 67,000 school districts in the United States, controlled by as many lay boards of education. Any examination of how well the teaching profession is achieving the ten standards to which we have referred must be considered in the framework of how public education operates in the United States.

A further consideration is how the professional aspect is related to the administrative function which is the subject of the text. Those charged with public school administration are themselves members of the professional group that they administer. They are subject to the same type of professional controls and emoluments that involve their colleagues. To a very considerable extent their own leadership is circumscribed by their own professionalism and by that of their staff members. Viewed in the larger sense, the job of administration is leadership in developing professionalism in education, since it follows that this would achieve many of the goals in improving the education of children.

Specialized Professional Preparation. It is fully recognized that the quantitative aspect of preparation will not alone provide professional status. However, when considered with the other criteria, in its proper relationship, there is no more important consideration in determining the extent of progress. The report of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards supplies the following data on recent changes in teacher preparation.

Master's degree or higher	14.4	25.0
Bachelor's degree	44.7	45.0
2.0 to 3.9 years of college	28.0	26.0
0.1 to 1.9 years of college	12.7	4.0

In a recent N.E.A. Research Division report concerning cities over 100,000 in population, it is shown that 42 of the cities credited the seventh year of professional preparation in their salary schedules. This encouragement to added preparation will undoubtedly have a considerable effect on the requirements in the years to come. Similar change has been experienced in the requirements for principals and superintendents. The same report to which we have referred supplies these data on principals and superintendents.

ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS: Twenty-one states have upgraded requirements for elementary principals since 1930; 20 states have upgraded requirements for secondary principals; and 17 states have ungraded requirements for administrative certificates. For elementary principals, when adopted deadlines become effective, 11 states will require a minimum of five college years of professional preparation; 17 states will require the bachelor's degree; and six states have not established a certificate or endorsement requirements for elementary principals.

SECONDARY PRINCIPALS: For high school principals, when adopted deadlines become effective, two states will require more than five college years of professional preparation, but less than six; 18 states will require five years; 12 states will require more than four but less than five years; 13 states will require the bachelor's degree; no state will require less than four years; three states have not established a certificate or endorsement for secondary principals.

SUPERINTENDENTS: For superintendents, when adopted deadlines become effective, two states will require six college years of professional preparation; two states will require more than five years but less than six; 24 states will require five years; eight states will require the bachelor's degree; no state will require less than four years; and three states have not established a certificate or endorsement requirements for superintendents.⁴

It was reported that 20 states and the District of Columbia now required or had set deadlines for requiring elementary principals to have the master's degree, while 24 states required or had set deadlines for the bachelor's degree, and only 5 required either no certificate or less than the bachelor's degree. For high school principals, 8 states

required the baccalaureate, 11 states some work beyond the baccalaureate, 26 states the master's degree, 2 states some work beyond the master's, and 2 states no certificate. For superintendents, 4 states required or will require the baccalaureate, 32 states the master's degree, 4 states study beyond the master's, and 2 states no certificate.⁶

These changes have been accomplished in a period of great stress and shortage, indicating public support and strong organizational effort. In spite of these standards and a strong movement for their further improvement, shortages and improper employment procedures and practices, as well as loosely developed state policies, have permitted the employment of thousands of teachers each year since World War II on an "emergency certificate" or "permit" basis. It has been estimated that there were still 63,000 such certificates.

Although this is about half the number at the highest point, the practice of granting such certification, even upon a temporary basis, is open to serious challenge, since it is neither sound for the schools nor for the profession. Both the public and the profession should seriously question this practice. To our knowledge such a practice is not followed, in spite of shortages, in other professional fields such as medicine or engineering.

Other "gaps" exist involving improved specialized professional preparation. Such an area is that of preparation of county and state superintendents. The election of these persons by popular vote is germane with this problem. In 6 states, the county superintendent was not required to have any college training,⁷ and in 22 there were no educational requirements for the state superintendent.⁸

Another weakness in developing professional status in relation to specialized preparation is the wide variation in state requirements. The variation for teachers, from permitting high school graduates to be certificated to requiring a minimum of five years of college prepara-

tion, is indicative of the range and makes more remarkable the data presented above. The cultural and general educational level and the professional skill and knowledge of the teacher are at stake when the preparation period is greatly limited.

An encouraging aspect of the professional preparation of teachers and administrators is the growing tendency to provide some kind of extended internship before permitting the candidate to be certificated. This practice, followed extensively in other professions, is associated with the specialized preparation patterns that require four or more years of college preparation. The practice of granting provisional certificates, even though the person has completed the minimum preparation for certification, is a further effort at professionalism. Through this practice a further selection is possible and a contribution is made to in-service improvement.

Selective Admission. Selective admission is practiced by the teaching profession on at least three levels. A certain selection takes place upon the student's admission to college and to the teacher-education curriculum. A further selection takes place as he proceeds through the curriculum, and if he completes it, when he applies for certification. A third step in the selective admission process is his selection through employment, and if his system or state provides a probationary period, his orderly procedure through this process.

It would appear that enough selectivity is exercised to insure only those persons who are well prepared and personally well qualified for their work as permanent members of the teaching and administrative corps. Actually, this is one of the points of greatest weakness in the striving for professional status. At every stage of the series of processes that have been indicated, certain problems exist. A brief statement concerning each will illuminate some of the issues.

Because adequate standards for the mass of colleges and universities preparing teachers and school administrators have been slow to develop and slower to be applied, the quality of teacher preparation throughout the country leaves much to be desired. Whereas 72 institutions are approved as medical schools to train for that profession,⁹ there are 1164 institutions that have some type of preparation program for

teachers, only 768 of which have been accredited by regional associations.¹⁰ Some states have more institutions approved for all types of teacher preparation than the entire country has in the case of the medical profession. It is true that there are about five times as many teachers as doctors, but the proportion of training institutions for teachers is much greater.

It follows that selective admission at the college and university level is likely to be inadequate under such circumstances. Some institutions actually use their teacher-education curricula to maintain their existence, through admitting persons indiscriminately to provide an enrollment that will pay the necessary expense of the institution. Because individual states vary in their ability and willingness to meet the situation, this condition is a major issue in professionalization. The development of such organizations as the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, and the more recently created National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, are steps toward the ultimate solution of this problem. Many states are setting up commissions and committees that are the counterparts at the state level of these national organizations. Such action at state level will be necessary, since our control of education is essentially within the states.

Involved with this problem is the basic one of a valid means of evaluating the quality of programs for the preparation of teachers. This is the goal of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education, and its beginnings in show promise in that for the first time teaching will have a nation-wide accrediting process, structured along democratic lines. It will provide for participation of the major groups having a concern for and an equity in the *quality* of teacher-preparing programs. Selective admission, which has been previously discussed, is only one phase of its intent, but an important one. Should it succeed in plugging the gap that has been indicated, a major achievement would have been accomplished.

The variations and weaknesses of the certification programs at the state levels have already been stressed. This is a very real phase of the

selective admission process. The second step in selective admission must be equally effective if the teaching profession is to be further professionalized. Employment practices and the use of the probationary period, both for employment and permanent certification, are equally important in the selective admission process. Regardless of the responsibilities carried by individuals, institutions, and departments to screen unlikely candidates for teacher responsibility, the final one rests with the employer. This final screening process in many respects is the most important one, since no serious damage to children will have been done by incompetent persons up to this stage. The earlier treatment of the recommended employment practices in local school systems is basic to this consideration. The operation of factors that provide adequate selective admission at this stage should be especially safeguarded. The dangers of an undersupply of teachers, nonprofessional selection, and inadequate consideration to the economic factors affecting employment are very real and constitute threats to the professionalization of teaching.

Teaching as an Art. Increasingly, teaching is being regarded as an art based upon scientific knowledge and a philosophy that governs procedure. The fact that the teacher works with human beings as individuals whose emotions and human values are concerned prevents the teaching process from being purely scientific. A creativeness is required in the teaching process that supplements the scientific method, although that method may serve as a basis for action. This is no different from the medical worker, who, basing his action upon such scientific disciplines as anatomy, physiology, or chemistry, creates a service tempered by his knowledge of the individual and by his concept as to how he may best be served.

In the same fashion the teacher, using his knowledge of psychology and sociology, adapts his teaching to the needs of his individual pupils. His philosophy of procedure will guide him in his relationships. In addition to method and philosophy, he must also be a master of the content area that he teaches. Such a complicated pattern, then, does not fit into a rule-of-thumb relationship, but requires in the master teacher a creativeness that justifies teaching being regarded as an art, which is one of the criteria of a profession.

The artist-teacher is a rare person, and it must be recognized that artistry in any profession is a goal seldom fully achieved. This in no sense discounts the criteria as a valid one in evaluating the profession.

Teaching as a Lifework. The extent to which an occupational group regards its employment as a lifework is an important factor in determining its professional status. An appraisal of the educational group leaves much to be desired in so far as its meeting this criteria is a part of its achieving professional status.

The circumstances surrounding the employment of teachers in the public schools, including the large number of women who enter the profession for only a short period, prevents its being a life career for many persons. The average teacher's period of service was about ten years a half-dozen years ago.¹¹ This situation is slowly improving. Now more than one half of the teachers (58 percent) have been in service more than 10 years; 27 per cent had been in service from 10 to 19 years; 22 percent from 20 to 30 years, and 9 percent more than 30 years. The median number of years of experience of all teachers as reported by T. M. Stinnett, was 13 years.¹² While this falls far short of life-career service, an improvement can be noted.

Certain characteristics of the profession and of its working conditions will probably prevent its reaching a situation where it compares completely with professions like law, medicine, and engineering, which are essentially dominated by one sex, are privately practiced, and where the incomes are materially higher.

As preparation standards are improved, as local employment practices are less discriminatory, especially to married women, and as the economic factors surrounding teaching become more consistent with the costs and standards of living, these criteria may be more fully met by the teaching profession.

In-Service Activities. The importance of in-service activities has been stressed in two earlier chapters, first in respect to the importance and methods of improvement, and later as the problem is associated

with local personnel administration. This previous emphasis has been directed toward improving the efficiency of the personnel. Its importance as a characteristic of professional status is an additional step in stressing in-service activities.

In meeting this criterion, the teaching profession goes far toward achieving professional status. Continual activities in which teachers seek improvement have long been characteristic of the profession, and with such motivation as salary schedule provisions, certification requirements, and desire for promotion and prestige, the continual improvement of the personnel seems assured.

Probably the greatest factor, and the one which indicates the greatest professional characteristic, is the seeking of intrinsic satisfactions through self-improvement. The earlier statement covering this criterion emphasized the innate desire on the part of the majority of the educational personnel for improvement, in contrast to imposed processes for improvement. While it is true that the starting point upon which in-service activities are built is probably lower at the outset than those of some other professions, the teaching group certainly excels most professional groups in respect to this criterion.

Unity and Organizations. The difficulty of achieving unity and representative organizations in a field as diversified and broadly controlled as the teaching field provides a real challenge in respect to the relationship of this criterion to obtaining professional status. The only possibility for this unity is through dedication to a common goal; namely, the basic purpose of the school—the achieving of democracy through the maximum development of every child to which the school ministers.

Even proceeding as basically as approaching the problem from the vantage point of a common goal has its problems. Such a goal is so far reaching and to such an extent an ideal that it is not easy for as large a body as that which is involved to accept or even understand its implications. The educational profession is no different from any other in dealing with such an intangible aspiration. Its problem is further magnified by the number of persons involved and the multitude of conditions under which they work.

Some of the conditions which seem to retard unity are the levels—

elementary, secondary, and college—at which teachers work; the consciousness of working in urban or rural areas; the classroom teacher-administrator relationship; the sharp cleavage of subject-matter lines; the problems in respect to “academic” versus “nonacademic” areas; and the divisive effect of certain organizations which are more interested in their own perpetuity than in the unity of the profession.

In spite of these problems, remarkable progress has been made recently toward unity and therefore toward greater professionalism. One of the best means of developing professionalism and unity is through formal organizations. The need for a strong unifying organization, in which unity of purpose can be achieved, becomes evident as one examines this problem. The best organizations that have been developed thus far to serve this need are the National Education Association and its many independent, although affiliated, state and national organizations. Although the National Education Association is less than one hundred years old, its membership now numbers in excess of half of the educational personnel in the public schools. This gain from 22 percent in 1910 reflects the recent trend. State organizations enroll a much higher percentage of the personnel. When the National Education Association membership figure was 46 percent, the state organizations enrolled 93 percent of the instructional personnel in the public schools.¹³ The relationship between the National Education Association and its affiliates strengthens the profession materially.

There were 29 departments of the National Education Association, 51 affiliated state organizations, and nearly 2900 affiliated local and sectional organizations.¹⁴

Such a condition, while encouraging, leaves much to be desired in the way of formal professional organization and unity. Until our national organization represents the vast majority of the professional personnel, the public is not likely to be impressed with the strength and purpose of the group. Achieving this goal is one of the principal factors in reaching mature professional status.

Currently there are groups which represent special points of view

in respect to the matter of professional organizations which, however worthy in themselves, act as divisive forces in relation to achieving professional unity. Such organizations as the American Education Fellowship, which is interested in a particular philosophy of education, the American Federation of Teachers, and the somewhat similar organization in the C.I.O., whose members believe there should be a close organizational relationship with organized labor, may offer outlets for the interests of certain individuals, but do not serve as a unifying force necessary to obtain professional status. One of the real challenges today is to develop working relationships between such groups so that they make their contribution and serve their interests without creating disunity. The responsibility for meeting this issue rests mutually with such organizations and the National Education Association and its affiliates.

Public Service and the General Welfare. No professional group can expect recognition unless it is willing to place its function for public service and its consideration of the general welfare above personal gain. While it may be governed by a legal code and its relationships and duties thus defined, the public will usually judge it by the service it performs beyond such requirements.

Traditionally, the teaching profession has met this professional standard. Sometimes it has gone so far in doing so as actually to mislead the public in terms of the best service that the professional group can perform. Reference here is to the apparent willingness to teach in situations where pupil-teacher ratios do not permit good professional service and for salaries wholly inconsistent with the service performed.

It is the opinion of the authors that the "extra-mile" services should be in respect to the inspiration and guidance that the master teacher provides beyond his teaching of the regular school curriculum and in relation to community services which go far in raising the standards of all the people. It is a shortsighted approach that causes some members of the profession to consider themselves missionaries who are expected, at least partially, to donate their services. The public is usually willing to pay for the service it receives, and such an approach in the long run usually provides a stronger profession which in turn yields better service for the children in the schools.

It is in this area that the public relations of the profession frequently break down. Community publicity is too frequently directed toward salary increases, tenure and retirement programs, and other welfare areas that cause the public to conclude that the teaching group is interested only in those factors and as short a school day and week as possible. Ways and means must be found to demonstrate the long hours of unselfish service performed by teachers and the load of community service they perform.

A Code of Ethics. Members of a profession subscribe to certain principles bearing upon their relationships to each other and to those whom they serve. This imposition of self-imposed restraints is evidence of group maturity and frequently has greater effectiveness than the legal code governing the group. The dignity represented by such self-imposed controls is a tribute to the profession and greatly contributes to the integrity of the group.

Considerable progress has been made in this area by the teaching group in recent years. In 1952, at its Detroit meeting, the National Education Association adopted a revised and much extended *Code of Ethics*. This code has been frequently referred to in Chapter 5. The tendency for state and local groups to adopt this national code and extend it through implementation is evidence of the interest in which it is held. While it has been admitted that the problem in the teaching group is securing one group that can speak for it, the increasing prestige of the National Education Association and its extensive local affiliates makes its *Code of Ethics* the most effective one for teachers generally.

The relationship of this problem to the field of teacher education and the function of organizations to make their membership aware of the code is self-evident.

One of the important phases of any code of professional ethics—and it is particularly true of teachers because of their relationships—is that of dealing with employing officials. This phase of teacher ethics has been dealt with in connection with the problems in local personnel administration. The relationship between the teacher, the administration, and the board of education makes this area an ideal one for con-

sideration to explore the functions and responsibilities of the three groups.

The Legal Code. Professions usually have their minimum standards in respect to preparation and licensing or certification set by law. This indicates their social significance and the necessity to surround them with high standards. A well-organized profession is usually the leader in developing and securing approval for its own legal code because it recognizes it as a means to protect the services it provides and the individual members of the profession.

Increasingly, the teaching profession is adopting this procedure. In pushing forward in this area, the teaching group is adopting a coöperative approach with other organizations and the lay public. Increasingly, too, encouragement is being given to adopting legislation in the broad area of control, leaving specific regulations to such agencies as state boards and state departments of education. This approach gives greater flexibility as well as a greater opportunity for an organized profession to control its own destiny. Such national organizations as the National Council on Teacher Education and Professional Standards and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education indicate the direction that the teaching group is pursuing. The effectiveness of such procedure is usually determined by the extent to which the idea is adopted locally and on a state-wide basis.

Since the professional organizations of 46 states and territories have set up commissions or committees to extend their effectiveness. In general, they are modelled after the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, and they work on similar problems. By working with state departments of education and other state groups they carry out their professional tasks. Such effort, based upon coöperation and good public relations, promises further to establish the teacher group firmly in its professional status in respect to this criterion.

A Profession Provides Varied Services and Opportunities. An analysis of professions generally indicates that they usually offer a variety of services and opportunities. This is quite true in the field of teaching, using that term in its broad sense, although, like most professions, it

has a large element that essentially performs the same type of task. In the educational group it is, of course, *classroom teaching*. This, then, is the common core of the profession and the one around which it is built. Reference to Table 2 in Chapter 1 indicates the preponderance of this classification in the public school employees. However, many other types of service are evident by examination of the same table. The work of the superintendent, the principal, the supervisor, specialized personnel such as guidance and clinical workers, curriculum and publications specialists, and many others represent the variety of employment in the field of education.

Such a development represents a degree of maturity and a professional status. Many of the specialized positions require an even higher level of specialized professional preparation than the more prevalent classroom teaching assignments. It should be recognized, however, that all of these more highly specialized jobs exist for only one purpose: facilitating teaching and learning.

One of the criticisms frequently leveled against the educational profession is that it is *too* compartmentalized. Other professions have experienced the same problem, and when this happens they tend to become more remote in their relationships to their clientele. It would defeat the purpose of further developing professional status should the teaching group go too far in this direction. In an attempt to obtain status, promotion, and salary, some groups in education have been overzealous toward specialization. Only where the need justifies it and where the ultimate end of education can be better served should specialization be encouraged.

Summary. An analysis of the criteria or characteristics of a profession as they apply to the teaching group leads to the conclusion that the group, while not fully mature as a profession, has sufficient professional characteristics to justify calling it a profession. Such an analysis further leads to a conclusion that there is no criterion that the teaching group cannot meet sufficiently to justify fully its professional status. Like all professions, some of the criteria are much more fully met than others. Such a condition places upon the organized profession and teacher-education institutions a responsibility for further strengthening those characteristics that are well established and de-

veloping those that are weak. While the problem is a state-wide and national one in scope, the most effective field for action is at the local level. Evaluation of their professional maturity by local groups offers one of the most promising possibilities for growth. Such an appraisal should be made in the light of how well the group is serving the fundamental purposes of education, rather than in the light of personal welfare of members of the group, although it usually follows that group welfare improves when such processes are applied.

THE ROLE AND KINDS OF PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

It is hard to see how a profession can exist without professional organizations. It is the organization that binds together the professional workers, helps to clarify their problems, protects them from outside pressures, and insists on professional competency and performance by its members. Major progress in American education during the past century has been the result of the work of voluntary professional associations. Such organizations have investigated, or caused to be investigated, educational conditions which have exposed weaknesses, suggested solutions for these weaknesses, and have sponsored and supported good school legislation. Likewise, improvements of school procedures have been brought about.

THE ROLE OF PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The role of professional organizations in improving professional status and leadership is becoming increasingly significant. It has been stated that 93 percent of all those engaged in instructional activities in the public schools were members of the national professional organization—the National Education Association—or an affiliated state organization or both. If such organizations are at all effective, they represent the most constructive and continuing influence toward the professionalization of teaching. The basic purposes of all professional organizations are (1) to promote the welfare of members, and (2) to foster continuous and effective personal and professional growth to members. This dual role is in contrast to the erroneous opinion of some that the sole function of professional organizations is to serve the selfish interests of the members. No doubt the activities of some

professional organizations have tended to cause the public to regard them as pressure groups. Fostering the welfare of members should have the effect of making more effective professional groups.

It is obvious that the organized profession has and should influence educational policy. To a great extent, formulation, initiation, guidance, and support of such policy are the responsibility of members of the profession, both individually and collectively. While the adoption of educational policies is a public function through boards of education, the recommendation of such policies is a professional responsibility. The administrator who fails to utilize to the fullest the experience, training, and judgment of his staff in formulating his proposals will not realize the ultimate success that might rightfully be his. Too frequently, school administrators do not appreciate the wisdom of this course of action, and unless school employees are organized, they are ignored in the formative stages of educational policies. In recent years professional organizations have assumed more and more responsibility in influencing and making policy. At the same time much attention has been given to employee welfare.

In general, as a result of the work of professional organizations in education, gains have been made in (1) improvement of educational conditions within states and communities; (2) dissemination of professional information; (3) development of a spirit of unity and understanding among teachers; (4) publicity for the profession; (5) opportunity for social development; (6) inspiration; (7) teacher welfare in terms of salaries, insurance, and retirement; and (8) a professional solidarity perhaps impossible to accomplish in any other way.¹⁵

It is well recognized that individuals working alone have little chance of making headway on such large problems as many of those related to public education. The method of coöperative effort and group action is the only approach that can be expected to succeed. This is becoming more apparent as the number of organizations representing every conceivable interest grows.

Much can be gained by studying the history and development of

professional organizations. Since the purpose of studying them in this text is limited to providing background for better personnel administration, only casual reference is made to their history. The reader may wish to refer to Elsbree's *The American Teacher*,¹⁶ and to Stinnett's *The Teacher and Professional Organizations*¹⁷ for greater insight into their history and development.

The authors have previously pointed out that the methodology of improving the human relationships of administration and suggesting opportunities for growth of personnel are corollary goals. The working with and through employee organizations is one of the best means the administrator has for implementation of good human relations.

Promoting the Welfare of Members. One of the most important considerations that encourages membership in professional organizations is the well-founded belief that the welfare of the profession, especially in its economic aspects, is closely associated with effective organization. This aspect of the problem has been dealt with rather extensively in Chapter 11 of the text, having to do with economic and welfare considerations. The several areas, such as salary, tenure, insurance, retirement, certification, employment practices, teaching loads, and academic freedom, have much to do with the individual teacher's welfare, and are difficult to deal with effectively on an individual, or even a local group basis.

The problem is broader than relationships to the local employing district, reaching to the state level in respect to legislation and state regulations and involving the public relations problem generally.

Professional Research Services. One of the most important contributions of local and national organizations is the research programs that they conduct. At the national level, the Research Division of the National Education Association furnishes some of the most important and reliable data in respect to the public schools and their employees. Similarly, at the state level, state organizations like that of the Indiana

State Teachers Association conduct research programs that have been instrumental in much educational progress. Research at the state and national levels provides a most effective and economical way to obtain and disseminate data involving the profession and the public school system. Members of professional organizations might well provide additional support for this service, since it is basic to the other welfare aspects of their organization.

Fostering Continuous and Effective Professional Growth. The most important role of the professional organization is fostering continuous and effective professional growth of its members. A wide variety of activities, well known to most members of the profession, is conducted by national, state, and local associations. A review of their nature and function may serve to provide a basis for such appraisal as will relate them to the purpose of this chapter; namely, improving professional status and leadership.

Developing Effective Communication. One of the most significant opportunities available to the professional organization is that of maintaining communication among its members. In this instance the term "communication" is used in its broad sense, with the implication that understanding and growth will result from its use. Since the communicative process serves both the organization itself and the functions the organization proposes to carry out, it is therefore the most important factor in organizational activity. No program or service can be furthered without it. A review of the ways and means of communication within the professional organizations may also constitute a review of organizational functions and services.

The problem of communication varies greatly, depending upon whether the organization is a local, state, or national one. The emphasis that is placed on certain types of communication will, therefore, vary in terms of the nature of the organization. Broadly speaking, communication, as it serves a profession, must be both written and oral and to a very large degree interpretive, if it is to serve its purpose. Such interpretation will need to deal with the basic purposes of the organization, and its general programs in which it is interested. These special programs will also need the backing of ample research that can be understood by both lay and professional people.

KINDS OF PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Professional organizations may be classified into two broad types: (1) the all-inclusive membership association, and (2) the special interest association. Each of these may be found at the local, state, and national level.

The National Education Association, the state education associations, and many local associations are all-inclusive groups in which membership is open to all educational workers. Their purposes are to further the interests of education in general and to improve the welfare of all employees.

The largest of all professional organizations is the National Education Association of the United States. It is the all-inclusive national professional organization of the teaching profession in the United States, the only present organization that represents or has the possibility of representing the great body of teachers in the United States. Since all members of the profession are eligible for membership in, and most members of the profession are members of the local and state education associations and the National Education Association, the all-inclusive-membership associations are the only ones in a position to speak for the profession at their respective levels.

The special-interest association is designed for those engaged in educational work at a given level, field, or type of position. These organizations serve the needs and interests of special groups. Through conferences and publications these organizations generally provide a means for the exchange of information and experiences among their members. Although it is not possible here to record detailed information on each special-interest association, attention is called to a number of the more prominent ones. Many are directly associated, as departments, with the national all-inclusive-membership association, the National Education Association.

Some of the strong independent special-interest organizations, not affiliated with an all-inclusive-membership association are: American Association for Adult Education, American Association of University Professors, American Council on Education, National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, National Association of High School Super-

visors and Directors of Secondary Education, National Council of Chief State School Officers, National Safety Council, National Society for the Study of Education, and the National Vocational Guidance Association.

Many such organizations center in subject-matter areas. Typical organizations built around classroom interests are: American Home Economics Association; American Psychological Association; American Vocational Association; Association for Childhood Education International; American Association of Physics Teachers; American Association of Teachers of French, with comparable groups in German, Italian, Spanish, and other languages; the American Mathematical Society; Child Study Association of America; Modern Language Arts Association; National Association of Biology Teachers; National Council of Teachers of English; and National Kindergarten Association.

Another group of special-interest associations are those built around the type of position including specialized school employees such as: American Library Association, American Nurses Association, American School Food Service Association, American School Health Association, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Educational Press Association, National Association of School Secretaries, National Association of School Social Workers, National Association of School Business Officials, National Office Management Association, and the National School Public Relations Association.

Any employee has access to membership in one or more professional associations designed to serve his special interests. Paralleling the list of national special-interest associations will be found similar groups at the state and local level. The directory of education associations published annually by the U.S. Office of Education in the volume listed more than 300 state associations of which probably a majority of them were of this type. Special-interest groups are often affiliated with state education associations or are departments of the state education association itself. A recent study reported that there were 104 different types of special-interest departments in state associations. The most frequently mentioned ones were (the figure in parentheses indicates the number of states in which the department exists): elementary school principals (25); superintendents (24); secondary school prin-

cipals (23); classroom teachers (21); health and physical education (21); vocational education (19); foreign languages (17); English (16); mathematics (16); science (16); social studies (16); art (15); audio-visual education (15); business education (15); home economics (15); library (15); industrial arts (14); music education (14); higher education (12); administrators (10); geography (9); rural education (9); supervisors (9); elementary education (8); guidance (8); childhood education (8); special education (8); classical (7); speech teachers (7); secondary education (5); curriculum and supervision (5).¹⁸

The all-inclusive-membership association and the special-interest associations are not competitive organizations. There is no conflict between these broad types of associations. Both are necessary to serve the needs of employees.

BELONGING TO PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

The responsibility of the employee does not end with the teaching in the classroom, or supervising and administering the educational program. It is recognized that all members of the profession have at least a fourfold responsibility in their service to society:

1. Continuous personal and professional growth toward maximum competency and thus toward maximum service to children
2. Coöperative work with immediate colleagues toward well-rounded educational services through the school system
3. Participation in community activities to the end that the employee may carry his share as a member of the community, as interpreter of the schools to the community, and as a participant in cooperative action and adult education
4. Participation in the work of the organized profession so that the standards of the profession may be raised, the quality of the services of its members increased, and the welfare of its members enhanced¹⁹

Being professional involves a feeling of respect and pride in belonging to the group. It requires a desire to give effective service and a

willingness to share the privileges and responsibilities. These feelings, desires, and responsibilities also apply to the nonteaching personnel.

One's obligation to his professional organization extends beyond the obligation of membership and financial support. It requires active, enthusiastic participation in the affairs of the organization. The administrator should participate actively as a member of key local, state, and national organizations of the all-inclusive type, and in those of his field of professional interest, as well as encouraging like participation of the members of the staff. It is unethical to accept the benefits while withholding support from organizations which secure and maintain them.

The Local Association. In some respects the local association is more important than either the state or national association. It represents the area where the final educational program is planned and executed.

. . . The local association is the cradle of democracy in professional organizations. It is close to the people and to the conditions which concern schools. It is the training ground of leadership; a laboratory for coöperative projects. State and national associations gain in strength as professional attitudes and loyalties are built up through the activities of local associations. Local, state and national go forward together.²⁰

The local professional organization is concerned with (1) improving the professional services of its members, (2) improving the contents and methods of instruction, (3) building morale in the staff, (4) improving working conditions and the economic status of employees, (5) rendering community and civic services of many types, and (6) interpreting the association and the profession to the public.

The types of activities carried on by local associations vary widely. Some emphasize social and recreational activities for their members, whereas others concentrate on work dealing with professional problems. The range of activities can be grouped as follows: (1) those designed to promote fellowship and good will among members, (2)

those which contribute to the cultural growth of members, (3) those directed at the raising of the standards of the profession, and (4) those designed to promote professional welfare of members.

The State Association. This type of professional organization reaches a larger percentage of the professional personnel than any other phase of professional activity. Such associations employ a number of techniques to encourage the professional growth of their members. Some of the most frequently used techniques are (1) state conventions, (2) district or regional conventions, (3) leadership or zone schools or conferences, (4) field services, (5) research services, (6) consultative services, and (7) publications.

One of the most important aspects of state association work is its legislative activity. Frequently, programs for legislative consideration based upon its own, as well as independent, research are placed before the public and the state lawmakers. Usually such legislation is the most forward-looking legislation in the school field that the state legislature receives. This results from the factual basis of the proposals, the professional point of view which dominates them, their divorcement from party politics, and the fact that they represent a continuous approach to the educational problems of the state.

Many state associations engage directly in welfare activities for their members. Insurance programs, teacher-placement services, and assistance to local groups which are studying special problems are typical and fairly common.

The journal of the state association is the most common publication. These range from the "house organ" type to excellent professional journals. Other publications such as pamphlets, monographs, and bulletins are sometimes underwritten by state organizations. Increasingly, state organizations are directing their publications to the lay public and are beginning to utilize radio, motion pictures, and television in their interpretive and communication programs.

The participation of the personnel of the schools in the wide range of activities of the state association is serving as an opportunity for both professional services and leadership training, much of which is reflected in the further effectiveness and improvement of local associations. Through the use of committees, regional associations, and the

rotation of responsibilities, many members of the profession in a typical state have the opportunity to participate, help develop policy, exercise leadership, and find an outlet for professional interest and ability.

More and more the work of the state association is serving as a means for teachers and school administrators to work together, to the mutual advantage of both groups and the schools. Such opportunities for democratic relationships are improving the outlook of both teachers and administrators. One of the most important aspects of state association work is the service of a group of professional persons that represent a type of specialized personnel service. This staff, usually headed by an executive secretary, performs an outstanding service to the profession and the public schools. They furnish leadership, continuity, specialized ability, and a type of representation that means much to the profession.

The National Association. Previous reference had been made in this chapter to national organizations for teachers. It was pointed out that the National Education Association and its affiliates, through state and national membership, embrace over 90 percent of the instructional personnel employed in the public schools. This association is effective both as a parent body and through its affiliates at the national and state levels.

A study of the affiliates of the National Education Association will give a better understanding of its inclusiveness than is possible in this text. Such information, published in an *N.E.A. Handbook* is provided annually by the association. This handbook includes a full statement of the purposes, history, statistics, and other extensive data concerning the association. It also includes full information covering the government of the association, its finances and membership. Considerable data is also furnished concerning the status of professional organizations in each state and the possessions of the United States. The Handbooks are made available to officers of state and local associations; superintendents of schools; presidents of colleges and universities; officers of the N.E.A. departments; commissions, committees, and instructional members of the association. Obtaining the information directly from this source seems more reasonable than repeating it in the text.

The best understanding of the purposes of the National Education Association can be obtained through examining two of its fundamental documents. These are its *Code of Ethics for the Teaching Profession*, also dealt with in Chapter 5, and The Platform of the National Education Association.²¹ Each represents the professional level which it has reached and which it seeks to improve further.

Through this organization and its affiliates there is an opportunity for professional expression by every member of the teaching and administrative personnel, working at the public elementary and secondary levels and in higher education. It appears without question to represent our best opportunity for professional unity. It is recognized that no group as numerous or diverse as is the teaching and administrative personnel will find complete satisfaction in relationship to a single organization. The existence of other organizations, made up of those who do not feel they can subscribe to the principles and purposes of the National Education Association, does not in any sense lessen its general effectiveness. The fact that such a situation exists suggests one of the basic principles of democracy within the profession: the right of a teacher to choose the organization or organizations to which he belongs. In spite of their support of the group of professional organizations that are related to the N.E.A., the authors would in no sense advocate compulsory membership in any group. Professional organizations as well as their members must face the fact that merit is earned and must be maintained to retain professional status.

One of the real problems of the teaching group has been to develop basic loyalties to its own professional organization. Teachers and all educational personnel have tended to demand perfection in their organizations, which of course is an impossibility, and failing to obtain it, have tended to be quite critical. However, the group seems to be realizing that organizations are only as good as their membership, and members are increasing their participation. This is a wholesome situation, since many weaknesses of organizations can be corrected through cooperative effort, and through participation critics will learn of the problems faced in such organizations.

TRADE UNION MOVEMENT AMONG TEACHERS

Although the vast majority of members of teacher organizations are members of the National Education Association and its affiliated state and local associations, there are those with differing points of view. For this reason, the authors have included information about teachers' organizations affiliated with organized labor.

The American Federation of Teachers, A.F.L. The first teachers' unions were organized in 1902 at San Antonio, Texas, and Chicago, Illinois. In 1916 delegates from eight locals organized the American Federation of Teachers, which became affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. At that time the total membership in these eight locals was 2,800.²² The size of the membership has varied, depending somewhat on the general economic conditions and their influence on school budgets. By 1920 the membership had grown to 12,000, but

it had declined to 3000.²³ It was approximately 50,000.²⁴ The organization consists of 20 state federations of teachers' unions and 375 local unions in 40 states.²⁵ Locals have been organized especially in large cities and other industrial centers. The membership consists primarily of classroom teachers, since superintendents and other administrative and supervisory officers may join only by special action.

The program of the A.F.T. stresses "Democracy in Education and Education for Democracy." It emphasizes the social and economic welfare of teachers and advocates adequate salaries and pensions, smaller teacher load, effective tenure regulations, sabbatical leave, and academic freedom. It also advocates improved professional standards, modern curriculums and methods, federal aid to education, and abolition of war. These goals are essentially the same as those held by other teacher organizations. The difference in point of view is that A.F.T.

groups hold that affiliation with labor organizations is necessary to achieve these objectives.

The problem of teacher strikes has been one with which the Federation has constantly struggled. Officials of the American Federation of Labor have allowed teachers' unions exemption from the use of this normal technique of organized labor, and at the 1947 convention of the American Federation of Teachers the official, thirty-year-old, no-strike policy of the Federation was reaffirmed.²⁶

The A.F.L. lends moral and, at times, financial assistance to the A.F.T., but the latter is an autonomous organization.

C.I.O. Teacher Organizations. The United Public Workers of America has jurisdiction in the field of teachers' organizations for the Congress of Industrial Organizations. The U.P.W. was formed in April, 1946, by a merger of the United Federal Workers of America and the State, County, and Municipal Workers of America. It maintains a national Teacher Division which services and coordinates the work of teachers' locals. The U.P.W. claims a membership of 100,000, of which 20,000 are said to be teachers. C.I.O. local teachers' unions emphasize the necessity of collaboration of all teacher organizations and attempt to achieve unified working relations.²⁷

While the C.I.O. recognizes that most teachers have the right to strike, they encourage them to use every effort to improve school and working conditions without resort to this method. They recognize also that teachers in federal employment, and in certain states, are forbidden by law to strike.

Teacher Affiliation with Labor Organizations. The advisability of teachers becoming affiliated with labor has been widely discussed both within and outside the profession. The metropolitan press has been particularly vigorous in its opposition to union affiliation of teachers. The arguments usually offered in favor of their affiliation include the points of view that alliance with organized labor strengthens the position of the teaching profession and, therefore, furthers the cause of education, and that teachers as American citizens have a right to join

such organizations as they wish. Those who are opposed to teachers joining unions argue that education is a public service and that since teachers are public employees they should not ally themselves officially with any particular social or economic group; that they can accomplish their objectives equally well by developing their own strong, independent, professional organizations; and that by so doing they will contribute more effectively to the development of teaching as a real profession. Unless they adopt strikes as instruments to achieve their demands, teachers' unions have no different channels through which to work than other teachers' organizations.

Teachers' unions seem to thrive most in times of stress, and where conditions of work are not good. Where administration is autocratic, salaries inadequate, and tenure insecure, there unions flourish.

It seems probable that the major contribution in the future of teachers' unions will continue to be that of stimulating the older and larger professional organizations to more aggressive action, in contrast to providing a structure for the professional development of the educational staff.

ORGANIZATIONS AND THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Professional organizations must be recognized for the services which they can render. No attempt should be made by the administration to control or dominate these bodies or to dictate their decisions. Instead, a cooperative relationship should be maintained. The position of the administration should not be one of dabbling and interference but one of support and encouragement.

Staff members should participate in the activities of a professional group strictly as members of that body and not in an official capacity. Their organization work should be based upon interest, enthusiasm, and willingness to participate above and beyond the line of official duty and should be voluntary. Developing this relationship is one of the real challenges to the administrator. Too often the administrator participates in the activities of the professional group wearing his official cloak. This leads to the possible and sometimes correct accusation that such organizations are dominated by administrators.

Accomplishments will be increased by the maintenance of pleasant,

coöperative relations between the school administration and employee organizations. Organizations at all times should work closely with various community agencies and with the administration, to further the policies and the program of the school system, including sharing materials and resources. They should keep the administration informed in regard to their policies and program, and provide an opportunity for the administration to make suggestions with respect to the organization's plans. They should reply to questions and requests of the school administration promptly and courteously and, where needed, should contribute funds and services according to availability in the interest of public education. They should give public recognition to those persons including members of the board of education, administrators, leaders in the community, and parent-teacher association officials who have given outstanding service in connection with organization projects.

The administrator, by encouraging formation of professional organizations within the system, by encouraging participation in professional organization of staff members, and by offering every help in their development can further the accomplishments of professional groups. Suggestions of appropriate areas for emphasis in their work can be made. Professional groups can be kept aware of administrative policies and basic educational problems. They can work closely with officers and leaders of professional groups and can publicly recognize outstanding services to public education and the school system of professional groups and of various leaders in those groups. This discussion illustrates again the two-way aspect of communication described in Chapter 3.

Boards of education can encourage constructive activities by approving those which further the school program. Granting permission for leaders of professional organizations to attend important meetings and conferences is desirable.

Inviting suggestions of professional groups concerning in-service offerings for staff members and the establishment of such offering will prove profitable. Frequently, professional groups desire the help of speakers qualified in their areas. The school administration can sometimes help finance their appearance, give in-service credit for

attendance at such programs, and in other ways assist in making such programs successful.

The school district should provide school facilities for the meetings of professional groups, including meeting rooms, library, auditorium and cafeteria, at no cost to the organization.

The board of education should encourage appearances at its meetings of the officers or representatives of basic professional groups, to discuss problems of mutual interest and to present topics of vital concern to the professional body. Invitations to such meetings should be channeled through the superintendent in accordance with the administrative policy of the district. All such requests must be treated in a completely fair and honest manner.

It is suggested that boards of education approve any adjustments that are necessary in the teaching schedules or work assignments, including the use of substitute teachers in order that the work of professional organizations may be facilitated. Many boards have found it profitable to assist financially attendance of representatives of all classifications of employees at regional and national meetings of professional organizations.

INTERORGANIZATION COÖRDINATION

Where more than one professional organization operates in the same area or given level, their activities must be carefully coördinated. The leadership of the various groups must assume this responsibility. Certain ethical considerations must guide the work of one organization with another and with the school administration. The program and purposes of each group must be given respect. The interests and desires of each group must be submerged into a united front on behalf of the needs of all groups. The fundamentals of democratic action must prevail in forming unified groups both within each organization and in the work of the combined group.

To coördinate the work of the various professional groups, councils are sometimes formed with representation from the broad all-inclusive-membership organizations, organizations in the various special interest fields, parent-teacher associations, and the board of education. Such

councils serve as a clearinghouse on the work of the groups and develop programs for unified action.

Programs of action of all professional organizations should be formulated carefully and should be coordinated with the programs of other groups so as to eliminate duplication of effort, and related to the school policy in so far as possible. Conferences, publications, research groups, and other services may be sponsored cooperatively by the several organizations. All professional groups should share their resources and efforts in order that information pertaining to the needs, problems, and accomplishments may be known to all.

Probably the biggest problem within and between organizations is that of communication. Communication is a two-way process with both horizontal and vertical implications. Communication involves not only the dissemination of information but the securing of reaction and discussion by all concerned. Not only does it involve transmission of ideas, suggestions, and information from the top to the bottom, but also from the grass roots to top leadership. Communication involves participation not by some of those in each group or level, but by all. The problem of communication has not been solved nor will it probably ever be one hundred percent complete. However, administrators and organizational leaders will find that time and effort devoted to the improvement of communication will be most profitable.

Unfortunately, organizations sometimes become competitive. When such an occasion arises, it is imperative that there be a carefully developed board of education policy to enable the administrator to operate in such a climate with fairness, consideration, and assurance.

TEACHER EDUCATION

The improvement of the professional status and leadership of the teaching group is intimately associated with the nature of teacher-education programs. To a considerable extent our present professional structure grows out of their past character, and undoubtedly its future will be molded to a very great degree by them.

Earlier in the chapter the point was made that teacher education was taking place in far too many institutions, some of which are

totally inadequate to meet the challenge afforded by the demands of modern education. This condition exists because of the lack of understanding of the nature of the professional task in the preparation of teachers. It also exists because the profession has not, as have other professions such as medicine, engineering, and law, insisted that institutions should demonstrate an understanding of the problem and be willing to provide adequately for a satisfactory job, in terms of staff, facilities, library, and coöperation with the organized profession and good school systems.

The problem is that until recently no one has been able with certainty to indicate what a satisfactory job is, since neither means of evaluation nor adequate standards have been developed. The recent progress in this respect will be discussed later, indicating the promise that this development holds for the improvement of professional status and leadership.

THE EMERGING TEACHER-EDUCATION PROGRAM

For more than a century teacher education programs have been evolving, and fortunately no standard curriculum has emerged. Because education is a state function, curriculums are as diverse as the state certification requirements and standards for teacher personnel. Unfortunately, we still find teacher-education work offered in the secondary schools and teachers being certified for jobs without any collegiate work whatsoever. On the other hand, in the doctor's degree in education was offered in at least 55 major universities. These and many others offered work for the master's degree as further preparation in elementary or secondary education.²⁸

There is also diversity in teacher-education programs, depending upon the educational level or field for which teachers are being prepared. The education of nursery school teachers will, for example, differ markedly from that of those who will teach vocational agriculture.

As a result of the *National Survey of Teacher Education*

thinking and discussion in regard to the purposes and objectives of teacher education have been greatly changed. The thinking has tended to be in terms of qualitative rather than quantitative considerations and in terms of desired learnings or behavior controls rather than subject-matter areas of study.

Objectives today are being stated in terms other than areas of knowledge and skill as derived from courses in education. They are more broadly conceived than those derived from job analyses. For the first time the work of the teacher has been approached as a truly professional undertaking. Purposes are now derived from qualitative evaluations of the role the teacher should play in contemporary society. Statements of objectives are frequently in terms of broad competencies and are often considered judgments and conclusions of groups of individuals.

Several statements of goals and purposes or objectives of teacher education emerged from the work of the Commission on Teacher Education appointed by the American Council on Education. The National Conference for the Improvement of Teachers, sponsored by the Commission in 1947, held that the teacher must: (1) strive to develop desirable personal characteristics; (2) possess a positive, stimulating, ethical character; (3) have an inquiring mind; (4) have an understanding and appreciation of community mores; (5) have a command of the principles of the teaching and learning process and understand the use of techniques and skills in achieving the educational objectives in the area and level in which he is teaching; (6) understand the principles of healthful living and apply them; (7) develop a functional knowledge of the principles and practices of guidance; (8) understand the democratic processes and insure their effective practice in the classroom; (9) understand the needs of children and utilize all available resources in meeting those needs; (10) have an understanding of human relations; (11) understand and appreciate the problems of other cultures "

It is evident from a study of contemporary objectives for teacher education that the general education of a teacher is held to be of high

significance. The authors believe that this is one of the most important aspects of the teacher's education and recognize it as a crucial problem in formulating a curriculum.

Probably the best contemporary thought on this problem today is that of the Commission on Teacher Education, whose judgments concerning general education for teachers are summarized as follows:

1. Teachers should receive the best possible general education, not only in order that they may share in what ought to be the birthright of all young Americans today, but also because to them is entrusted considerable responsibility for the general education of all young Americans tomorrow.

2. The aim of general education should be to enable young men and women to meet effectively the most important and widespread problems of personal and social existence; in the case of prospective teachers such education should seek to further the development of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and interests that are fundamentally related to needs and responsibilities shared with contemporaries destined for other vocations.

3. While general education may be usefully contrasted with special or vocational education, it ought not, as conducted, to ignore the implications of the special or vocational purposes of students; nor should professional education be carried on wholly without reference to students' more general needs; an integration of general and professional education should be sought.

4. At least three-eighths of the college experience of a prospective teacher should have as its primary objectives those properly ascribable to general education.

5. While elements of general education may well predominate during the first two college years, they should neither monopolize nor be limited to this period; some educational experiences related to vocational purposes should be provided as soon as the latter are formed; and the idea that general education may be considered as "completed" at some particular time should not be encouraged.

6. The contemporary trend toward balance and integration in general education is significant and deserves support. This implies a basic pattern of broad courses, each developed with the special purposes of general education in mind, each requiring a fairly substantial block of time, and all planned in relation to one another.³¹

While the authors agree with these judgments concerning general education for teachers, they also recognize that it is not enough, since it would be possible under the above program of general education for a teacher to be without a knowledge of children or of how to direct their learning. Therefore, the technical-professional education and preparation for teaching at the different levels or in particular fields must have at least equal emphasis. While fifty years ago one might say there was a "standard curriculum" consisting of educational psychology, history of education, classroom management, principles or philosophy of education, teaching methods, special methods, and practice teaching, the program of professional courses today reflects a shift in emphasis from technical skills and routines in management to principles, points of view, and understandings. There has been an increasing recognition of the harmony the school must achieve with the principles of democracy. Courses providing organized blocks of experience and professional subject matter represent desirable trends.

The worth-whileness of experiences provided through the student-teaching or internship courses is attested to by the opinions of experienced teachers who consistently maintain that these courses are the most valuable part of their pre-service experience provided for in the college program. Current trends indicate that the daily time devoted to student-teaching is being expanded and the length of the period of training is being increased; that the use of off-campus schools as student-teaching centers is becoming more common; that college supervision of such students by generalists rather than subject-matter or grade-level specialists is increasing; that too little attention to outside-the-classroom experiences for student-teachers is being given; and that the diminution of other college work taken concurrently with student-teaching is desirable. Although considerable interest has been shown in internship programs of teacher preparation, relatively few attempts have been made to put this type of program into operation. Such a program, as contrasted with the student-teaching program, should consist of full-time work in a school position, and be characterized by intensive experiences in planning, in conducting extra-curricular activities, and in the preparation of materials.

There has always appeared to be more satisfaction in the profession

with the results of the elementary teacher's preparation as evidenced by professional skill and interest in the school itself than with the preparation of secondary teachers. This is probably true because the elementary teacher has been further away from subject-matter content and more closely associated with child needs.

G. Lester Anderson, Professor of Education and Dean of Teacher Education, College of the City of New York, summarizes the generalizations concerning teacher education curriculums by stating that:

Curriculums are yet unstandardized in length, emphasis, or detail of content.

Curriculums are slowly being remade to bring them into harmony with the best thinking and research concerning the total nature of education.

Developments in the area of general education are slowly causing modifications in this phase of the teacher education curriculum. General education, however, is still largely traditional liberal education.

Specialization for the teacher is still along subject matter lines and is subject matter centered, notwithstanding a different trend in the elementary and secondary school curriculums. Subject matter specialization in teacher education is still controlled by the academic mind.

The technical-professional aspects of teacher education have shifted from an emphasis on techniques to an emphasis on principles. Educational psychology, sociology, and philosophy are having major impacts in this phase of the curriculum, although the content of these subjects may not be packaged as such.

There is still lack of integration in the three major aspects of the teachers' education: general, specialized, and technical-professional.

A curriculum which will equip teachers to perform a professional function is in the process of evolving but has not yet evolved.³²

Although the literature in the area of teacher education gives evidence that there is a state of considerable flux and that much attention is being given to the problem of improving teacher education, it is also easy to observe that there is still much to be done.

THE ACCREDITATION OF TEACHER-PREPARING INSTITUTIONS

In an earlier statement the authors stressed the fact that there were nearly 1200 institutions of higher learning preparing teachers for our

schools. Less than two-thirds of this group of schools has received accreditation from regional associations like the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, or its counterparts in other parts of the country. Part of the problem has been the lack of adequate standards or accreditation procedures, and the other most important aspect has been the inability of state agencies, which have the responsibility, to cope with the issues.

Within the past few years, especially since World War II, when the problems of teacher education and supply have been so pressing, considerable progress has been made in the direction of at least a partial solution of the problem. Such organizations as the *National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards*, the *National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification*, the *American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education*, and other agencies have made considerable progress in developing coöperative procedures for accreditation purposes. A new organization, which is described at length in Chapter 15, called the *National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education*, promises much in the accrediting field.

Two recent publications are worth studying in respect to these developments: *The Revised Standards and Policies for Accrediting Colleges for Teacher Education*³³ and *Proposed Minimum Standards for State Approval of Teacher Preparing Institutions*³¹ each begin by attempting to define the professionally educated teacher. The following statements represent the purposes and objectives of the organizations to which we have referred:

The professionally educated teacher:

1. Expresses carefully considered rather than impetuous judgments of public events. Views his own affairs and those of his profession in the light of a real understanding of the social, economic, and political factors operating in his community, nation, and world
2. Shows in his relations with other people as individuals and as groups,

that he reflects upon and practices the values of democracy, accepting both the freedoms and the responsibilities involved

3. Has developed an appreciation of people who are different from himself in cultural, racial, religious, economic, and national background, and is willing to accord them full equality of opportunity
4. Has gained a useful understanding of the learning process as it operates in human development and of effective methods of guiding it in children, youth, and adults
5. Has developed the ability and initiative to take responsibility for planning, guiding, and evaluating his own education and for helping others to learn
6. Has learned to identify issues of moral choice involved in his personal and professional life and has developed ethical principles and spiritual resources to guide his actions
7. Has developed sufficient understanding of the activities and agencies of local communities to enable him to relate the educational activities of the school to the ongoing processes of community improvement
8. Has gained a working knowledge of the principles governing the formation and functioning of social groups and is able to use group processes in the improvement of individual and community life
9. Understands the purposes, development, programs, financial support, and administrative organization of the American System of public education, and participates professionally in group planning of improved educational programs and in performing the special duties he assumes
10. Understands the physical and biological environment sufficiently well to guide children and youth in trying to use and control the environment for the welfare of all mankind
11. Is able to communicate his thoughts orally and in writing with enough clarity and logic to be effective as a teacher
12. Has a real appreciation of aesthetic values as these are represented in painting, sculpture, architecture, music, literature, and other media of creative expression
13. Is able to demonstrate his ability to apply his intellectual, moral, aesthetic, and professional learnings as an effective teacher in a typical school situation
14. Has acquired a teaching competence, in both knowledge and skills, in the subject matter areas in which he expects to teach³⁵

³⁵ *Op. cit.*, American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, pp. 8-9.

The nature and characteristics of these statements, as compared to the ones previously quoted from the National Council on Teacher Education and Professional Standards developed in represent the progress and development in thinking that are occurring in this field.

The *Standards and Policies* to which we have referred considers the strength of the teacher-preparing institution upon the following bases relative to the undergraduate professional program:

1. Definition, Objectives and Organization of a College for Teacher Education
2. Admission, Selection, Guidance, and Placement
3. Preparation of Faculty
4. Teaching Load of Faculty
5. Curriculum—Instructional Patterns
6. Professional Laboratory Experiences
7. Library
8. Financial Support
9. Appointment, Academic Freedom, and Tenure³⁶

It is clear that many of the nearly 1200 institutions now preparing teachers must strengthen their programs materially if they are to develop teachers with the characteristics of the professionally educated teacher that have been set out, and if they are to meet the standards in respect to the nine areas that are recommended by the association.

To date the accrediting program of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education is a voluntary and coöperative one. The only way that their standards can be definitely infused is through state departments of education and regional accrediting associations. Increasingly, however, there is acceptance of the standards and the type of procedure which involve self-evaluation by institutions and voluntary programs for improvement. This type of approach does not, in the opinion of the authors, justify the continued existence of a comparatively large number of borderline institutions that have little promise of ever reaching acceptable standards. The interest that such institutions frequently show in teacher education does not justify their continued existence as accredited teacher-preparing agencies.

Accredited Institutions and Teacher Employment. It is not enough

³⁶ *Ibid.*, Table of Contents.

to establish standards and apply them to teacher-preparing institutions; the employers of teachers have an equal professional responsibility to employ teachers whose professional education gives them a reasonable opportunity for success and whose professional point of view will strengthen the staff. Until coöperation is fully established between employing officials, state accrediting agencies, and institutions that are attempting to do an outstanding professional job, there is little hope for a full professionalization program in teaching.

Promotion in both position and salary should be dependent upon obtaining an education in institutions with a high professional status in respect to teaching. Local and state associations have a responsibility for a degree of diligence, which they have too infrequently recognized, in assisting the raising of standards at the state level. Frequently, they work very closely with state boards of education in accreditation and certification processes. Such relationships have proved to be most effective.

Professional Graduate Programs. The increasing emphasis for members of the teaching profession upon education beyond the bachelor's degree makes graduate programs for teachers and school administrators of unusual significance to the profession.

Many institutions, without adequate consideration of the problems and requirements, have extended themselves into the graduate areas. The evaluation of this area is especially important, since from it should come those with leadership responsibility in education. It is shown that strength in such areas as (1) admission, (2) faculty preparation, (3) teaching load of faculty, (4) the curriculum, (5) the library, and (6) financial support is of great significance in the graduate areas. State accrediting agencies, the organized profession, and employing officials should be particularly concerned with approving institutions for the graduate levels of education. One of the important considerations in the graduate area is the emphasis being given to internship types of experience.

The Internship in Education. Quite apart from the undergraduate experience in student-teaching is the increasing emphasis upon some type of internship experience at the graduate level. The most extensive development in this area has come in the fields associated with ad-

ministration, curriculum, and research. In some instances internships designed to develop the "master teacher" aspect of teacher education have been emphasized. The impetus to this type of maturing professional experience has come largely from other professional fields, particularly medical education. It is recognized that there are competencies and attitudes that can best be obtained through practical experience. These experiences must be guided and exploitation of the student by local school systems prevented. Increasingly, local school systems in which there is outstanding leadership are recognizing that they have a responsibility for coöperating with graduate programs of education in providing internship opportunities. One of the responsibilities of institutions in connection with the internship program is the careful selection and assignment of internees. Their careful supervision is also an equal responsibility of the institution and the school system to which they are assigned.



CHAPTER 15

Current Challenges to the Profession.

Future policy and direction, while closely associated with insights and goals, grow largely out of present conditions. The post-World War II period has been one of struggling with certain very realistic problems in the teaching profession, and at the same time one of raising standards and setting new goals. Examples of both aspects of the overall problem are, on one hand, dealing with the tremendous undersupply of teachers, particularly in the elementary field, and on the other, the relentless drive within the profession to eliminate the substandard teacher and set higher requirements for certification.

In dealing with the subject of the chapter, reference will be made to a number of problems. In one sense they exist as separate issues, but in another sense they show a high degree of interdependency. For the sake of presenting them with more clarity, a number of the topics will be treated in separate discussions. The reader is urged to consider their relationship to each other.

Contrary to the belief of uninformed persons, the raising of standards seems to be one way at least to approach a solution of this problem. The experience of states which have tried the plan of lowering certification requirements in order to balance the supply and demand indicates that this procedure lowers, rather than increases, the supply, and, therefore, is not the long-range solution to the problem. The raising of standards to the point where young people see the prospect of reasonable returns and protection seems the surest way to attract persons to the profession. Other professions have found that respect by its own members as well as the public generally is one of the best ways to attract recruits. Usually, other factors, such as pay and welfare considerations, improve with higher educational standards. States that have preceded their moves for higher salaries by raising training standards, or have carried them out simultaneously, have had the best success in meeting the supply-and-demand problem.

The profession must give organized attention to this issue. It can no longer leave the problem to the educational institutions, the employing officials, state departments of education, or the lay public. The problem must be the subject of a united effort, with the profession taking the lead, to attract outstanding young people to the profession. Other current suggestions in respect to meeting this issue will appear in the subsequent discussion of our challenges.

One of the encouraging signs of the times is the interest being manifested by citizen groups in respect to the teacher-shortage problem. The National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools has recently issued a booklet entitled, *How Can We Get Enough Good Teachers?* This publication explains the problems as follows:

In teacher trainees made up more than one-third of all college graduates. But the demand for new teachers equalled 64 per cent of *all* college graduates. For every year between now and the estimated demand for *new* teachers will be more than half the estimated number of all college graduates. This does not count a probable accumulation of backlog demands from previously unfilled quotas.

Is it realistic to expect such a large proportion of college graduates to enter public school teaching? The estimated number of graduates includes those trained for *all* the professions, positions in business, and technical

specialists of every kind. And the total number of graduates who qualify for teaching has been declining.

A closer examination shows that these figures must not be taken too quickly at face value. Totals, by themselves, can be misleading. For example, in spite of the gap of almost a hundred thousand between supply of new teachers and the demand that year, in the same year there was an oversupply of junior and senior high school teachers. However, a shortage is already showing up at this level in some places, and will increase as the enrollment bulge now in the elementary grades reaches high schools. By there will be three high school students for every two in

These figures point to the inevitable conclusion that the potential supply of qualified teachers is nowhere near the estimated demand for the next few years.

What does all this mean? Dean Francis Keppel of the Faculty of Education, Harvard University, puts it this way:

" . . . If we assume that teachers should be college graduates, that the proper average number of students per teacher should be around 30; if we use the latest population estimates; if we assume the normal turnover in the profession; and if we assume that all four-year colleges turn out about the same number of graduates a decade hence, then half of all college graduates or more will be needed for teaching. Obviously this is fantastic; yet it gives a measure of our predicament. We need numbers, and ability, and energy to solve our problems. . . .

The matter can be better understood if shown graphically. Figure 26, taken from the same source as the above statement, indicates the history of the relationship between the total number graduating from college and the teacher demand from the estimated relationship.

The obvious problem in obtaining from the total of college graduates the additional teachers that are needed suggests a continuation of the present acute shortage and a near crisis situation in the immediate future.

PREPARING TEACHERS FOR AN UNPRECEDENTED DEMAND

The education of a sufficient number of teachers to meet the supply problem that has been discussed is a primary problem for the profes-

in preparing teachers. This issue must be met courageously and with high professional regard for the ultimate goal with which we are concerned; namely, an adequate supply of well-prepared teachers to meet the growing demand.

SUPPORTING THE DEVELOPMENT OF ACCREDITATION AND PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS

One of the characteristics of the more mature professions, to which the teaching profession likes to compare itself, is their regard and support for their national accrediting processes. These processes are both legal and voluntary. Results have not been achieved in the other professions overnight, nor without a struggle. Only one profession, medicine, has established an accrediting process having united profession-wide support. It is to be expected, therefore, that there would be difficulties as the teaching profession seriously considers this problem. Part of the problem is numbers alone; the teaching profession numbering about one-third of all professional workers. Another aspect of the problem is the decentralization, in the form of state control, that exists under our system of government. The necessity, then, for a strong voluntary type of accrediting process for teacher education is apparent.

The goal of any accrediting process should be professional appraisal of the programs of teacher preparation that are involved. More than one half of all teachers who are now being prepared are products of programs that have not been professionally appraised; that is, prepared in institutions not members of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.⁵ Membership in a given organization does not in itself assure high professional standards, but to date it is the best single indication of purpose and interest in teacher education.

The failure of the dissident elements in education to establish general agreement concerning the necessity of an accrediting process has contributed to certain unfavorable results. Stinnett indicates that these unfavorable results are reflected in:

1. Great occupational instability
2. Low standards
3. Inadequate public concept of teacher education
4. Concept of general preparation
5. Attacks upon teacher education
6. Fragmentation of control⁶

These conditions reflect the need for a national accrediting procedure that will correct them. The hope of obtaining recognized professional status lies, to a very great degree, in uniting the profession to the point of agreement around national accreditation processes. Currently, the best hope seems to lie in the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

This organization, sponsored jointly by the National Council of Chief State Officers, the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the National School Boards Association, and the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, is the outgrowth of four years of study, discussion, and conferences.

In April a temporary committee of sixteen persons, representing the above organizations, was formed to draw up specific proposals for a national council for accreditation of teacher education, to be presented for approval at the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association.

The proposed plan was ratified by the Representative Assembly in July, and the new Council held its first meeting in November of that year. As approved, the Council is composed of twenty-one members, representing college administrators, state certification directors, chief state school officers, school board members, local school administrators, and classroom teachers; in short, a cross section of all groups which might be concerned with teacher education. The Council is now drawing up a constitution and bylaws, but its announced goals and functions present a clear picture of what may be hoped for from it.

GOALS AND FUNCTIONS OF COUNCIL

- I. Goals to Be Achieved by National Council
 - A. Recognition of teaching as a major profession

- B. Provision by all institutions preparing personnel for this profession of programs, facilities, and other resources adequate to insure professional competence
- II. Functions to be Served by National Council
 - A. To formulate standards for teacher preparation through continuous research and through consideration of the recommendations of all organizations concerned with the improvement of the preparation of teachers
 - B. To devise ways and means of evaluating institutional programs of teacher education by the application of these standards on the request of an institution, or state authority responsible for the accreditation desired by the institution
 - C. To publish lists of institutions accredited by this Council⁷

In no sense does this organization substitute for other agencies that aspire to raise professional standards. The work of such groups as the National Committee on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, and others will continue to furnish the basis for the implementing of the program that the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education should provide.

There is little chance that such a movement in the profession as has been outlined can succeed without the profession's united support. Many well-meaning professional persons look upon such a movement as something apart from their interest and welfare. The most successful of the other professions take an entirely different point of view. During the recent period when the medical profession felt that it was threatened with a public medicine program, nearly every physician arose to the challenge, and their efforts had a major effect upon public policy.

If the teaching group developed the same feeling of individual responsibility, a major change could be accomplished in their internal and external professional relationships. One of the major challenges to the profession today is to support the agencies that are attempting to raise professional standards. To date, there has been inadequate com-

munication in the profession concerning this issue. Quite frequently, we choose to discuss such problems as salary, tenure, and retirement. The profession's number-one challenge is to come to appreciate the importance of the accreditation and professional standards movement.

DEVELOPING UNITY AND LEARNING TO WORK TOGETHER

In the section on unity and organizations in Chapter 14, the authors have suggested that it is difficult to achieve unity in a professional field as diversified and broadly controlled as the teaching group. In spite of its difficulty and the fact that it is one of those goals to which one may aspire, but never completely achieve, it must continue to be a challenge if we are to be professional. In times of national crisis, our country traditionally rises to the emergency and puts aside selfishness in diverse groups. The authors maintain that an emergency exists, in respect to the teaching group. Faced as we are by an inadequate supply of teachers, by an economic situation wherein teachers as a group are less fortunately situated than any other profession, and by a recognition that we as a group have much to do to achieve professional status, all the elements of an emergency face us.

If there were no other good reasons for developing unity of action, the fact that a degree of disunity has contributed largely to our present emergency condition should be sufficient reason for a policy that would permit the full strength of the group to assert itself.

Achieving unity requires that we learn more fully to work together. This suggests general understanding of goals, agreed methods of procedure, participation in policy making and planning in the profession, and the elimination of such divisive actions as have sometimes been practiced in stimulating noncoöperation between administrative and supervising personnel and the classroom teacher group. It further suggests that we work out our differences within the profession and not permit them to be public property. It is scarcely to be imagined that the older and more mature professions are always in complete agreement among themselves. They have learned, however, that their differences, aired in public, weaken their general effectiveness. There is real promise that the teaching group is making progress in this area. Increasingly, there is better communication in the professional organi-

zations, greater participation, and a know-how of working together that should, in the long run, achieve positive results. The turnover in the profession, the serious problems in respect to salary and tenure, and other pressing issues will provide constant challenges to unity. It must be understood that unity of action in the profession does not mean complete agreement in respect to every detail of program or even principles. It does mean, however, willingness on the part of the group to come together where action is necessary and continue to work out details of program and principle that will be even more satisfactory to the group. The importance of beginning such a procedure at the local level, and thus formulating the basis for unity at the state and national levels, needs frequently to be emphasized. One of the real issues is that many of the well-formulated plans conceived at the national level are never thoroughly understood by the rank and file of the group. The importance of communication has already been emphasized, but in no instance is it more important than in those where developing unity is involved.

IMPROVING LAY RELATIONSHIPS

A never-ending challenge to every profession is that of improving its lay relationships. There are two aspects of the lay relationships of the teacher group. One of these is in respect to the relations that develop as the school program of which they are a part is carried out, and the second is the set of relationships that involve the profession as an organization as it sets out to achieve its purposes. It is difficult to separate these sets of relationships, and each, of course, contributes to the success or failure of the other. For our purposes, we are chiefly concerned with what might be termed the *lay relations* of the profession.

Earlier, it was indicated that the basic purposes of a profession were to improve the professional and personal effectiveness of its members and to promote their welfare.

To a very great extent, the basic problem of the lay or public relations program of the teaching profession is redirection. The public needs to be made aware of the desire of the group to improve the personal and professional effectiveness of its members.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH COMMUNITY GROUPS

Public schools are not apart from but are a part of the community. Neither is independent of the other and in order to maintain the American way of life, neither can operate well without the other. Thus there should always be effective relationships and teamwork between the two. The relationship of the school and its personnel to community organizations is important.

Parent-Teacher Relationships. It is clear that the development of the child is influenced by experiences outside of the school as well as those in the school. The out-of-school experiences may supplement and complement school experiences or they may neutralize and nullify their effects. Teachers realize that a knowledge of the child's home environment is helpful, and parents know that a knowledge of child development is needed. In addition, there is the recognized need for effective coöperation between parents and teachers on problems of mutual concern.

Various methods have been tried to solve these problems of parent-teacher relationships. These methods have varied from those initiated mainly by the school or by the parent to joint endeavors of parents and school. The best-known and most widespread method has been the organization of parent-teacher or home-school groups. The vast majority of these groups are affiliated with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, although some are purely local in character.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers, founded in 1897, emphasized the education of parents as the major channel by which the welfare of children was to be enhanced. The importance of coöperation with the school soon entered the picture and has continued to the present. This organization is one of the most helpful of all national organizations of laymen interested in the school. It has nearly 30,000 school chapters in 48 states, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Puerto Rico, and Hawaii, enrolling over six million members.

The objects of the Congress are:

1. To promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church and community
2. To raise the standards of home life

3. To secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth
4. To bring into closer relation the home and the school so that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child
5. To develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social and spiritual education⁸

In J. E. Butterworth⁹ suggested six objectives of parent-teacher groups as follows: (1) giving members understanding of the objectives and methods of the schools; (2) learning to apply accepted educational objectives and methods to the out-of-school environment; (3) under certain conditions giving school officials opinions as to where the school succeeds or fails; (4) aiding to educate the community in desirable aspects of the school program; (5) facilitating acquaintance among parents and teachers; and (6) raising special conditions. He also noted certain limitations: (1) the parent-teacher association cannot have direct, legal control of the schools; (2) it is not the responsibility of such an association to finance the schools; (3) the association should not undertake duties of a technical character for which the members are not prepared; (4) the association has no authority over the various other agencies having educational influence; and (5) the association should not, except in case of an emergency, undertake duties that are the primary responsibilities of other agencies.

Through parent-teacher organizations and their study groups, teachers will find an excellent opportunity to meet parents, pave the way for home visitation, and to present educational problems for study and discussion. Teachers should be encouraged to take an active part in the organization and to work with parents in planning programs and activities. Administrators will find the association meetings an opportunity to contact parents, discuss problems, secure opinions on various issues, explain phases of the educational program, and secure help in formulating policies.

Employees need assistance in how to meet parents, what to talk

about, how to be friendly, and especially how to be diplomatic, yet straightforward, when parents make direct attacks on teachers concerning their children or criticize the school.

Other Organized Community Groups. Citizens' groups interested in the public schools are forming all over the United States. Some will be useful and helpful, others will be harmful to the schools. Many have been set up hastily by persons with little or no experience with such groups, and with little or no help from those with experience. Even so, the movement for citizen participation is one of the most promising current educational movements.

In the American system of public education, the regularly elected or appointed board of education is the central community group to which all other community groups are supplementary or subordinate.

In addition to the parent-teacher association these groups might be described as follows:

1. Groups organized for purposes other than working with schools. Examples of this type are chambers of commerce, religious groups, service or luncheon clubs, and women's clubs. It is not to be implied that such organizations are opposed to the schools, since many have been exceedingly helpful in school affairs even though they were formed for entirely different purposes. Organizations of this type are very influential in shaping public opinion, including opinion about the schools. The private purposes of the organization often times conflict with the public purposes of the schools. These organizations are action groups. Although their activities may be helpful, many times when action pertaining to school is taken, it is without adequate study or deliberation.

2. Groups interested in particular school activities. In general, these groups are interested in the promotion of the spectacular cocurricular activities such as athletics and bands. These organizations, often without school stimulation, organize to make financial and other contributions. Too often such groups become pressure groups. Their interests are not representative of the community, are often hard for school authorities to deal with, and frequently have become instrumental in securing overemphasis of parts of the school program.

3. Community councils or organizations designed to coördinate the work of community groups and agencies. These organizations are generally not organized primarily for consideration of school matters, hence they

cannot be relied upon as a means of public participation in public education. Council members, since chosen by their organization many times must follow the organization "line," even though they might personally be convinced otherwise. Not all community organizations are represented in a council. The schools many times cannot afford to be closely allied with restricted parts of the public represented on the council.

4. Self-initiated independent citizens' groups. The group includes those organizations of citizens concerned with the schools as a whole and initiated by the citizens themselves. Such organizations may become necessary in the event boards of education become negligent of the interests of the large part of the community. They become essential if the board of education becomes "impossible" and pressure must be applied. Some independent groups do work coöperatively with the school board and community, but because such a group is launched by one community group and may only attract other similar groups, it may be quite unrepresentative. Too often they are the result of protest movements.

5. School-initiated citizens' committees. Committees of this type are not new. Adult and vocational education committees, as well as other special-purpose committees, have been developing for many years. Usually these were established upon the initiative of members of the profession.

Recent interest has been shown in the establishment of citizens' committees to work on general school policies and problems. A school-initiated committee is wanted by the school personnel with whom it works, hence does not have to force its attention upon school people as some other groups do. It is constituted so that it is reasonably representative of the community. Its members have no false allegiance to any specialized community group. Its function is to work with the schools or some designated part of the system. It is a study group that brings recommendations to the school officials only after mature consideration. It works closely with the board of education and the school staff.

No other citizens' group can take the place of school-initiated citizens' committees. There are times when representative, balanced groups of this kind are most needed, since others with special interests frequently become active in school affairs. It must be remembered that such committees cannot do for the schools some of the things other groups can do. Therefore, the development of a good system of

citizens' committees should not lead to the neglect or antagonism of other community groups who have a proper interest in the schools and whose help is indispensable.

Some of the purposes to which these school-initiated groups have contributed, in cooperation with other groups, are the following:

1. Making studies and recommending policies
2. Providing two-way communication between the school and the public
3. Determining the impacts of the school upon the community
4. Discovering community needs which the school is not helping to meet
5. Developing a school philosophy, a statement of school objectives, and a plan for evaluating progress toward these objectives
6. Correlating the work of the school with that of other agencies
7. Guiding and supporting the board, the administration, and the teaching staff
8. Initiating and sponsoring new school projects, such as adult classes, special education, and counseling programs
9. Getting a school up to date, keeping it up to date, and adjusting it to emergencies
10. Stabilizing a school situation by providing continuity when board members, administrators, and teachers change
11. Holding good administrators and teachers by giving them support they need and deserve
12. Maintaining a maximum of local control of public education by crystallizing community sentiment against encroachments by state and federal agencies
13. Unifying a community through the participation in the citizens' committees of representatives of many community elements

The contribution of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools in stimulating citizen interest in public education cannot be overlooked or underestimated. This organization is a nonprofit corporation for the improvement of the public schools. Its formation was announced in May. Its members are United States citizens not professionally identified with education, religion, or politics. The Commission has received financial support from the Carnegie Corporation, the Fund for the Advancement of Education, the General Educa-

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